



**A case study investigation of support processes and
interventions for potential ogle behaviours in Tasmanian
secondary schools**

by

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Statement of Originality

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“Too many people hold the idea that psychopaths are essentially killers or convicts. The general public hasn't been educated to see beyond the social stereotypes to understand that psychopaths can be entrepreneurs, politicians, CEOs and other successful individuals who may never see the inside of a prison.”

Robert D. Hare

Abstract

Positively addressing and resolving staff grievances within a school is imperative for effective schooling and leadership. Often overlooked in Grievance Procedures is a behaviour that is creating significant concerns, but when recognised it is often associated with and mistaken for bullying. This concept, and associated behaviours (e.g. patterns of multiple unrelated negative interactions with others) belongs to the *ogre*. *Ogre* behaviours are not well understood because the focus in recent years has been on bullying research that is overt in its nature, rather than *ogre* research that is systematically covert, and may include deeper psychopathological underpinnings. This leaves a significant research gap that fails to address the relationship between the desire for power/authority in the workplace, *ogre* behaviours, and data on the extent to which negative interactions by *ogres* may be influenced by personality. Furthermore, a gap also exists that clarifies how individual perceptions may contribute to *ogre* behaviours, and explain how Grievance Procedures may contribute to the reinforcement of *ogre* behaviours.

Content and Leximancer Analysis are two useful methodological tools which, when used in tandem, can specifically assist in addressing these gaps by increasing our understanding of the process/es undertaken to positively resolve *ogre* initiated grievance in terms of procedures, roles of individuals and outcomes in line with policy. Content and Leximancer Analysis were used to review formal procedures and archival files between the periods of 1973 until 1987 from a secondary school secure repository in Tasmania. Content Analysis was used to capture broad themes (i.e., concern relating to industrial/wage entitlements, behaviour/action of an individual, and negative interactions between 2 or more people), essences, and concepts common in archived formal grievance files; this led to identifying incidents in terms of their nature and severity. Leximancer Analysis was used to look at key ideas, concepts, and common words mandated by organisational human resource

policy; this assisted in assessing whether appropriate procedures and processes were followed leading up to positive resolution of *ogre* initiated grievances.

Content Analysis revealed that disputes regarding behaviours (e.g., harassment) appeared to have been resolved within five working days and, required no further action from school leadership. However, Leximancer Analysis identified that the Grievance Procedure in this school had a focus on producing measurable outcomes (e.g., reducing the harassment) rather than solutions (e.g., restoring an effective working relationship after harassment has ceased). Content Analysis allowed for a multi-layered consideration as it assisted in unpacking the grievance in terms of behaviour, and Leximancer Analysis provided a clear link in identifying how outcomes were achieved in line with policy and whether they resulted in positively resolving the grievance. Content Analysis in this research is guided by Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), and consequentially strengthened by enhancing the validity and reliability of the analysis.

Even though this research did not unanimously indicate that there is an ability to identify *ogres* in the workplace within retrospective archival research, it did outline the importance of considering each concern on its merit and type, rather than expecting that the same reaction to concerns will provide solutions. Consequently, a risk framework has been developed to support the early identification of *ogres* in the workplace with two further recommendations from this research presented in the final chapter. The first of these recommendation is to develop a global definition of *ogre* behaviour, and secondly, to use solution focussed policy and procedure mechanisms in the form of a risk management tool.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction to the Research

Figures from The House of Representative Standing Committee on Education and Employment (2012) state that inappropriate behaviour (e.g., bullying and harassment) in the workplace costs the economy between \$6 - \$36 billion every year in decreased productivity, staff turnover, poor morale, compensation and legal fees. The Committee estimated that during ones' career between 2.5 to 5 million Australians will experience some form of workplace harassment.

The Know Bull! 2010 Survey report on bullying revealed that work environments can become hostile when bullying is involved. Plus, the Mentally Healthy Workplace Alliance (MHWA, 2017), an initiative of *beyondblue*, has cited long term stressors at work (e.g. bullying) as a leading cause in depression in Australia. This clearly shows that one of the biggest challenges to work places is the insidious behaviours that have been termed bullying and/or harassment.

However, there is another lesser known concept that is also creating similar concerns, but when recognised it is often associated with and mistaken for bullying. This concept, and associated behaviours (e.g. patterns of multiple unrelated negative interactions with others) belong to what the author of this thesis terms the *workplace ogre*. According to the online version of the Cambridge English Dictionary (2017) an *ogre* is a "fierce and frightening person". Ultimately, a workplace *ogre* can be fierce in their behaviour and frighten whole workplaces, but in a covert way with the prime goal of appearing to be a model employee by discrediting others. *Ogre* behaviours are challenging because they are often disguised as minor concerns. Though when a pattern exists it can be at the cost of workplace morale, reduced productivity, and even suicide (KnowBull!, 2010; MHWA, 2017).

Unfortunately, these behaviours can appear as un-concerning and superficial for those individuals that are required to resolve the concerns created by an *ogre*. However, when there is a persistent pattern of predominantly covert bullying from an individual toward an outcome of improving their own situation, there can also be significant risk for a workplace in terms of staff turnover, increased sick leave, poor self-esteem, and potential financial losses through payment of substitute workers (MHW A, 2017). *Ogre* behaviours are not well understood because the focus in recent years has been on bullying that is overt in its nature, rather than *ogre* research that is systematically covert and potentially psychopathic, leaving a research gap.

In studying *ogre* behaviours, we may also be able to identify an early intervention approach to minimise the impact of *ogre* behaviour on the workplace and the individuals who are victims of *ogres*. The purpose of this study was to consider a technique that has not been used previously for similar research, and to capture historical archival data in retrospect in relation to one work site. Therefore, this study takes a novel approach, and is first of its kind, wherein it captures historical archival data to explore behaviours, while considering the hidden and/or forgotten voices of victims within the context of qualitative research.

The worksite chosen for this research was a school due to the ease of access of the researcher, who was employed at the location, and was permitted to access relevant data. By analysing the data obtained from 49 incidents and current school procedures, it may be possible to identify if there have been progressive changes and approaches made toward *ogre* management. If no such identification was made, this research aimed to formulate views for future studies.

This chapter commences with definitions of the key terms used in this study, followed by more detailed explanations about the gaps in research that this study addresses. The context of the study is then discussed, followed by an outline of the research design. The

chapter clarifies the contribution this study makes to current research, and the chapter ends with a brief summary of the remaining chapters.

Definitions of Key Terms Used

Identifying and finding a clear objective operational definition for bullies, harassers, psychopaths, and workplace tyrants is a difficult task (Crawshaw, 2009; Fevre, Robinson, Jones & Lewis, 2010). Equally, defining *ogre* behaviour is just as complicated (Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson, & Wilkes, 2010; Keashly, 2010; Lewis, Megicks, & Jones 2017); Lewis, Sheehan, & Davies, 2008; Lewis, 2006; Lewis & Gunn, 2007), and characteristically, the clarification of *ogre* behaviour in each study reviewed for this thesis was also different in terms of traits to look for in *ogres*. Many resources, both animate and inanimate, were considered for insight into behaviour modification and peer reviewed publication in the field of workplace behaviour. The animate resources (e.g., current policy and mandates, and diagnostic instruments) were accessed to assist in identifying elements that appear necessary to be considered as *ogre*. Additionally, a comprehensive list of publications (inanimate resources) are contained in the bibliography, but attempting to locate a common operational definition was difficult. Defining an *ogre* in a school is equally as challenging. Therefore, the *ogre* and the *school ogre* will be used interchangeably through this research. However, further clarification of bully, psychopath, and *ogre* is required and definitions are below.

Bully. The term bully is operationally defined within a work environment as “a repeated behaviour directed towards a worker, that is unreasonable, and creates a risk to personal safety or and workplace health and safety” (Worksafe Tasmania, 2016, p. 6). This is derived from the instruction in the Work Health and Safety Act (2012) that a person in control of a business or undertaking must ensure the health and safety of its workers, including their physical and psychological health (WHS Act, 2012). Arguably, covert

bullying (such as exclusion or gossiping) has the biggest impact on psychological health (KnowBull!, 2010; MHWA, 2017). Whereas overt bullying (such as tripping, or hitting), would clearly apply mostly to physical health. This legislation is enacted in every state and Territory of Australia except for Victoria and Western Australia. In addition, it is also bullying if the behaviour increases in intensity or becomes offensive after a one-off disagreement.

Psychopath. Psychopaths are bullies, but not all bullies are psychopaths.

Psychopaths are operationally defined as one having a personality disorder that is “defined by a distinctive cluster of behaviours and inferred personality traits” (Hare, 1993, p. ix).

Psychopathic behaviour is best evidenced by antisocial behaviour that society disapproves of, which consists of violation of social norms, irresponsibility, manipulation, selfishness, compulsive lies, theft, narcissism, lack of remorse, and superficial charm to ensure they can meet their needs at all costs. True psychopaths can only be considered in terms of clinical diagnosis via instruments to capture psychopathology. One such instrument is the Psychopathy Checklist – Revised (PCL-R) devised by Robert Hare (1991) who based his checklist on content from the 1987 version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-III) from the American Psychological Association (APA).

Hare, Hart and Harpur (1991), using a psychopathological paradigm within an institutional setting, described this behaviour as both covert and overt. However, the construct of psychopathy can only be diagnosed through administration of clinical tests by qualified personnel. The diagnosis of the PCL-R involves administration of a 20-item rating scale that measures Interpersonal, Affective, Lifestyle, and Antisocial dimensions.

Conversely, Hare et al. (1991, p. 392) clarify that the APA determines psychopathy with the following criteria, some of which also have a number of listed symptoms that must be present:

1. the person must be at least 18 years old;
2. there must be evidence of conduct problems before age 15 (at least 3 of 12 symptoms);
3. there must be evidence of a pattern of antisocial behaviour that continues into adulthood (at least 4 of 10 symptoms); and
4. the antisocial behaviour cannot be due to schizophrenia or manic episodes.

Therefore, a psychopath can only be diagnosed in a clinical setting through diagnostic assessments from trained personnel. Due to the commonality of the terms “workplace psychopath” and “corporate psychopath” it was necessary for this research to fully consult psychopathy research for behaviours that do parallel with *ogres*.

Ogre. Not all bullies are psychopaths, but all psychopaths and *ogres* are bullies. But *ogres* are again different to bullies and psychopaths as the behaviour of the *ogre* is more covert in their bullying technique and has a simple focus of improving their own situation, at the expense of others (Hare, 1993). For example, they will always want to be seen by their boss as the model employee, to receive a promotion to a higher executive position in the organisation. To do this they may discredit their competitive colleagues by starting rumours. Whereas bullies behave the way they do because they are likely to have self-esteem issues. To date there are no clinical or non-clinical diagnosis tools available to assess *ogres*. While this study recognises there are no valid tools to fully measure and or capture *ogre* behaviour, it will suggest possible ways to respond to *ogres* when their behaviour is disruptive in the workplace.

For the purpose of this study, the term *ogre* is used interchangeably with bully, but defined predominantly by covert behaviours. It is acknowledged that *ogres* have many similarities to bullies and may exhibit potential psychopathic tendencies, or additional features not discussed here. However, the term *ogre* has been used in a non-clinical context

in this study to capture the attention of people who may be working with similar issues, and to underline the seriousness of the behaviours. As such, where the research used in this study refers to behaviours that are, or appear to be both bully and *ogre*, the term *ogre* will be used. *Ogres* are also outlined somewhat in Clarke's (2007) workplace psychopath definition, Leichtling's (2005) and Silverthorne's (2005) definition of bullies, Broome's (2008) definition of sharks in the workplace, Ashforth's (1997) definition of managerial tyrants, and the criteria used in the Psychopathy Checklist Revised (Hare et al., 1991).

Ogre behavioural indicators – Clarke (2005) noted in his book that 'workplace monsters' behave as psychopaths within a work place context. Psychological aggression is also the predominant action of *ogres* and such belligerence is difficult to prove as it involves ongoing multiple types of passive actions or non-actions. They often use covert aggression that is largely unnoticed, so they are able to leave their target uncertain as to whether or not the aggression was intended (Clarke, 2005; Kaukiainen et al., 2001). Examples include, but are not limited to, exclusion from meetings or gatherings, withholding of information, excessive control and criticism, diverting blame to others, and failure to consult about changes (Keashly, 2010). The *ogre* has the ability to disguise his or her behaviour through these covert actions because they are developed and refined over many years (Clarke, 2005). Therefore, the actions are less obvious than overt bullying or physical aggression. Victimisation is subtle and often unnoticed until it has escalated (MacIntosh, 2012).

Therefore, *ogres* are bullies because like bullies as their behaviour can be classified in terms of the operational definition of bullying. They may also be psychopaths, but have not been diagnosed. But *ogres* are predominantly covert in their behaviour and similar to psychopaths, they seek power and authority within their workplace. *Ogres* perceive themselves to be worthy of a higher status in the workplace, so draw on their own perceived positive personality characteristics, such as superficial charm, to make this happen (Hare, 1993).

Further to this, covert workplace psychopathic behaviours need to encompass overt bullying, desire for power and authority, inflated perception of self-worth, and personality characteristics. And while some of these can be clinically assessed, retrospectively they leave a pattern of behaviour that causes distress and misery to those around them.

Ogres are often the employees that people either love or hate. Their group of victims dislike them, but they are likely to be supported by a larger clique that they have been able to influence; resulting in long term bullying being unquestioned (Hurley, Hutchinson, Bradbury & Browne, 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Lewis & Orford, 2005). Included in the clique are managers or supervisors of the *ogre*, because the *ogre* is able to effectively upward manage by instilling confidence in senior management of their abilities. Consequently, most leaders love them because *ogres* are masters of this impression management, where they can successfully influence others to view them favourably. So, when their supervisors confront them with a complaint about their behaviour, they are able to talk their way out of it with ease; therefore, the supervisor often believes that there is no problem with their employee in the first instance (Phipps, Prieto & Deis, 2015). This is because they have already created a good impression of themselves with their supervisor. The behaviour is therefore mistakenly labelled by supervisors as simple deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) and/or personality clashes (Ferris, 2004). This often results in the support mechanisms colluding rather than chastising the *ogre* to protect both work and personal interests rather than to challenge workplace structures, practices and procedures. This behaviour is associated with great unrest within the workplace because it includes ongoing manipulation from the *ogre* to meet their own needs.

These individuals desire power within the workplace, use a range of tactics to gain control (Broome, 2008) and use their authority to oppress others (Ashforth, 1997). Subtle bullying such as exclusion, treating people differently, over-monitoring, and setting

unrealistic goals for subordinates (Silverthorne, 2005) is also the norm for supervisor *ogres*. They use performance management to scrutinise their subordinates, and overload them with work so they appear as unable to cope. Their immunity from consequences comes from their alliances with senior management; who are often seen as protecting the *ogre* by normalising the behaviour (Hutchinson et al., 2010)

The victim. Victims of *ogres* and bystanders of victims find these undesirable behaviours beyond annoying because it appears to be superficial to bosses, though it causes trauma, emotional distress, and repression to the victim (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Hare et al., 1991; MHW, 2017) who continually face criticism of their work by the *ogre* and it intrudes on their time. This often takes place in the small and often open-plan workspace (van Heugten, 2010) that the *ogre* is located in; for instance, a teacher's office.

Ogres have considerable capacity to destroy others through a range of secret or covert actions that marginalise, destabilise, discredit, and instil fear in their victim (Kelly, 2006). *Ogres* do not create conflict, they victimise others. The central concerns are often left unresolved, stress is increased, and the relationship of the victim with their leaders and its hierarchy becomes strained. This in turn depletes the resources of the victim even more and increases the power of the *ogre* (Lewis & Orford, 2005; Zapf & Gross, 2001). Consequently, any attempt at resolving a complaint about an *ogre* becomes an action for unacceptable behaviour by the victim that is recognised as destructive to the team environment. Furthermore, most victims are blamed for the behaviour and are forced to resign or retire early (Hoel & Beale, 2006; KnowBull!, 2010; Lewis, 2006; Randle, Stevenson, & Grayling, 2007), or move to a different department within the school away from the *ogre*. These are often the only available realistic options for the victim (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

Ogres in Australian schools. School *ogres* in school, can be defined as those *ogres* that work in a school context, regardless of location or type of school. They can be teachers, administration, cleaners, or leaders. Anybody who works in a school and exhibits *ogre* behaviour will be termed a school *ogre* for the purpose of this study.

For this study, when the concept of *ogre* is used, it will be referring to *ogres* in general within all possible work environments. When discussing *school ogres*, the topic will be referring specifically to the school as a workplace where an *ogre* is, or may be employed. The behavioural traits will be the similar as any *ogre* but the environment will be specific to a school context. Hence, there may be *school ogres*, *mine ogres*, *government service ogres*, and *corporate giant ogres*, for example. Their behavioural indicators will be the same, but they will be in different workplaces.

However, school *ogres* may be separated from other *ogres* in two ways. These are in the length of time they are able to manipulate others, and the effect this has on the perceptions other employees have of new leaders in the school. Therefore, *school ogres* need to be separated from other *ogres* in terms of their behaviour and effect on the school environment. Consequently, it can be argued that the school environment presents unique concerns due to contractual conditions with leadership staff; concerns that result in behaviours that may not be as easily hidden in other workplaces. The current study will investigate the strength of these issues, as there appears to be no available studies on the following three contexts.

Firstly, for an anecdotal example, a school *ogre* is likely to be highly manipulative and be able to sustain manipulation of leadership for several years. This may only be possible because the leadership positions in schools generally rotate every two, three, or four years. Thus, the person developing the concern with the *ogre* (e.g. Principal or Dean, depending on educational facility) moves away from their leadership position, allowing the

ogre to continue manipulation, but with the new Principal or Dean. Therefore, all *ogres* will be manipulative, but a *school ogre* will be able to demonstrate prolonged manipulation (Piotrowski & King, 2016).

Secondly, long term staff members, the receptionist for example, see this manipulation happening every time a new Principal arrives. After the third Principal, the receptionist, and several other school employees, will start to doubt and question the leadership training of Principals in general. They start to think “why don’t the Principals see how bad she is”, or “I’ve watched this go on for nine years, and none of them are able to stop her”, or “She always gets her own way”, or “She is impossible to deal with”, for example.

Finally, the school holidays give the *ogre* the opportunity and time to consider and plan what they need to achieve for the following year to increase their power and authority within their workplace. As a result, many bystanders can think that the *ogre* has changed their ways over the holiday period, and they may have been a little harsh in their opinion at the conclusion of the previous year. However, by the end of the first term, the horror is being experienced again.

Therefore, the *school ogre* may be unique to other workplace *ogres* in their ability to manipulate because of the changeover of leadership positions, and the school holiday breaks. They are also aware that Principals are important. Principals are important because they will recommend the *ogre* for promotion, they are responsible for retaining staff or moving them on, can excel others they like and keep the more than qualified in minor positions. Furthermore, Principals are autonomous workers; they are not accountable for day to day school operations like a teacher, they have discretion in admitting wrong, and human resources are overseen by the Principal. This research seeks to clarify the validity of these statements.

Implications of the *ogre* - A Hidden Hazard

Ultimately, there are implications for all workplaces when supervisors are not able to recognise that *ogres* are actually a hidden hazard. Crawshaw (2007) outlined that the implications for any workplace include, but are not limited to, attrition of valued employees, decreased morale and motivation, potential or actual harassment litigation, and requests to transfer to other locations. Anecdotal evidence demonstrates that these implications are often apparent usually after multiple minor unresolved complaints that have caused disharmony in the work group. This disharmony and mild conflict, often presents itself as several minor unrelated concerns or complaints from colleagues that can span months, or even years.

Of particular importance is that *ogres* are a risk to any workplace because they may contribute to significant psychological injury for those that interact with them, causing great hidden cost to the employer. For example, Safe Work Australia (hereafter SWA) (2015) claimed that the total cost of workplace injuries in Australia each year is \$60.6 billion. The *beyondblue* Heads Up initiative (MHW, 2017) stated that untreated depression costs Australian workplaces \$10.9 billion per year through absenteeism, compensation claims, and reduced productivity. Therefore, up to 18% of workers' compensation claims may be due to psychological injury. Furthermore, teaching is also listed as a high risk occupation for mental stress compensation claims (SWA, 2013). As these hazards are mostly hidden, the extent that *ogres* contribute to these figures may never be known, yet it is highly likely that a great deal of it can be explained through prolonged exposure to *ogre* behaviour, and a study exploring this potential is warranted.

Therefore, *ogres* who are the product of unsuccessful formal complaints, or even legal processes in some cases, and various unsuccessful interventions designed to resolve the concerns, are hidden hazards that require risk management in terms of human resource risk (Keashly, 2010; Silverthorne, 2005; van Heugten, 2010). Otherwise the workplace as an

institution is powerless to administer effective actions to identify and attempt to decrease such difficulties through typical workplace procedures. The *ogre* is able to realise these gaps in the structure and manipulate them for their own advantage at the financial and reputational expense of the workplace. Unfortunately, this is how an *ogre* becomes inadvertently and unintentionally supported.

As a result, it has been argued that work environments are seriously flawed in their omissions to abolish the adverse phenomena of *ogre* behaviour (Kelly, 2006). It is evident that current intervention strategies do not work, or the costs associated with bullying alone would not be so high. If schools do not have the skills to decrease these incidents by implementing models that look at both the school and the individual, then they are at a risk of creating or sustaining cultures that accept *school ogre* behaviours (Randle et al., 2007; Sinclair, 2005). As outlined, this can be costly for the workplace, including schools, both financially and for its reputation; particularly if the predominant culture supports school *ogre* behaviour (Friedman & Bolte, 2007; Kelly, 2006).

The study in a Tasmanian School Context

While *ogres* are likely to be business owners, executives of multi-national companies, or aspiring to become such individuals (Babiak, Neumann & Hare, 2010; Mathieu, Neumann, Babiak & Hare, 2015), not much attention has been given to school *ogres*. As mentioned earlier, school *ogres* are unlike others because of their ability to manipulate for lengthy periods (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Thus, this study aims to look at school *ogres* to learn and capture the types of incidents, the duration of incidents, the level of seriousness of the incident, and the outcome of the resolution process. Fortunately, the secondary education system in Tasmania is distinctive, yet parallels the national system, and as a result, this

research could have been undertaken at any school in Australia, and so a local school near to the researcher's home was used as a prototype case study for this research.

The school contains immeasurable anecdotal examples where Grievance Procedures appear to have been unsuccessfully implemented between staff members. Concerns (i.e., informal complaints) are not always resolved for those involved and this can often be at a great cost to the school, because good staff members reluctantly resign as a result. It appears that the system has failed, but in actuality, *ogres* are able to manipulate the system to have it appear as a failure. In many of these circumstances the source of concern has carried out his or her behaviour by covertly engaging in actions that do not appear to be implicit contributors to workplace conflict (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Hare et al., 1991).

This indicates that the actions of an *ogre* may result in the potential for valuable workers to become disillusioned when they realise that immature bullying witnessed or experienced as a child in the school-yard can develop into *ogre* behaviours in the adult workplace. This disillusionment of feeling powerlessness to be heard by the leaders in the workplace can have lasting impacts on targets and result in distrust of leadership, increases in workplace conflict, disrespect, and a lack of suitable employees. All of which is taking place in a sector that already struggles to find staff who exhibit distinct leadership qualities suitable for the work environment they are employed in (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994, Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007, van Heugten, 2007).

Furthermore, while well intentioned, human resource policies and procedures do not always account for timelines and due process at the ground level. In other words, when a complaint is made, the pro-active guidance intended by human resource policies and procedures in place at schools is often overlooked. This is because the guidance is designed to assist leaders to react immediately to concerns, though that immediacy does not allow time for leaders to re-familiarise themselves with the available tools. As a result, *school ogres*

place the school at risk of creating or sustaining a culture that accept *ogre* behaviours. These 'one size fits all' approaches to grievances, concerns and complaints often result in victimisation of staff, particularly if the policies do not consider both the school on a macro or whole system, and the individuals within the school on a micro level that make up the system (Randle et al., 2007; Sinclair, 2005).

Retrospective examination of the *ogre* topic suggests that concerns and issues in the workplace have been difficult to prevent when *ogres* are at work. This is because deterrence can only take place if there is an attempt to recognise *ogre* behaviours at an early stage, if boundaries of behaviour in the workplace are defined well, if constructive conflict leadership is in place, and if interventions acknowledge that males and females both exhibit *ogre* and experience *ogre* behaviours differently (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014, Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004).

Therefore, there is a potential for employees right through to policy makers to lack understanding about the social and emotional expectations that individuals are faced with in the workplace. Particularly in ways that assist them to interact positively with others and to develop resilience to poor behaviours (van Heughten, 2013). This misinterpretation may lead some people to cross the boundary separating the team member in the system and the manipulating individual. This results in an overall under-recognition of *ogres*.

To date, no study has explored *ogre* behaviour in schools, and given that *ogre* behaviour is difficult to identify, this study will take on a retrospective technique in exploring behaviours that are *ogre* like. Therefore, it can be surmised that the increase in the need for human resource professionals in Tasmanian schools has recognised an interdisciplinary issue that can be approached from both education and business faculties. Additionally, the school may provide us with a snapshot of what could be uncovered in other schools.

This lack of local research will be enhanced by this study and recommendations will contribute to key strategic processes that restrict schools from increasing or maintaining its ability to be a thriving environment virtually free of issues that *ogre* behaviours create (Olsen, 2014). This study is a retrospective one because such a study has the scope to capture the role individuals have played in resolving a conflict or dispute. Retrospective archival data can give an insight into the role of the individuals, what was said, done and not said and done, and this may show a footprint of *ogre* behaviour in across cases in a timeframe. For example, taking a historical data from the 1980's to now will give an insight into the role of employees, leaders and conflict resolution processes in history, and how they have evolved.

Further, a review of the nature and severity of the behaviour and individuals involved can assist us in finding ways to assist us to recognise *school ogres* earlier than we are currently able to, and identify gaps in current policy and procedure.

Research Questions

Most interactions between individuals in the workplace is generally acceptable and easily explained, as the individual and the workplace environment interact peacefully. However, in a small number of cases, there are other factors that can tip the scales from acceptable workplace behaviour to *ogre* behaviour, as outlined in the previous section. The explanations for this 'other' factor, as shown in figure 1.1, devised by this researcher to illustrate what these research questions are about.

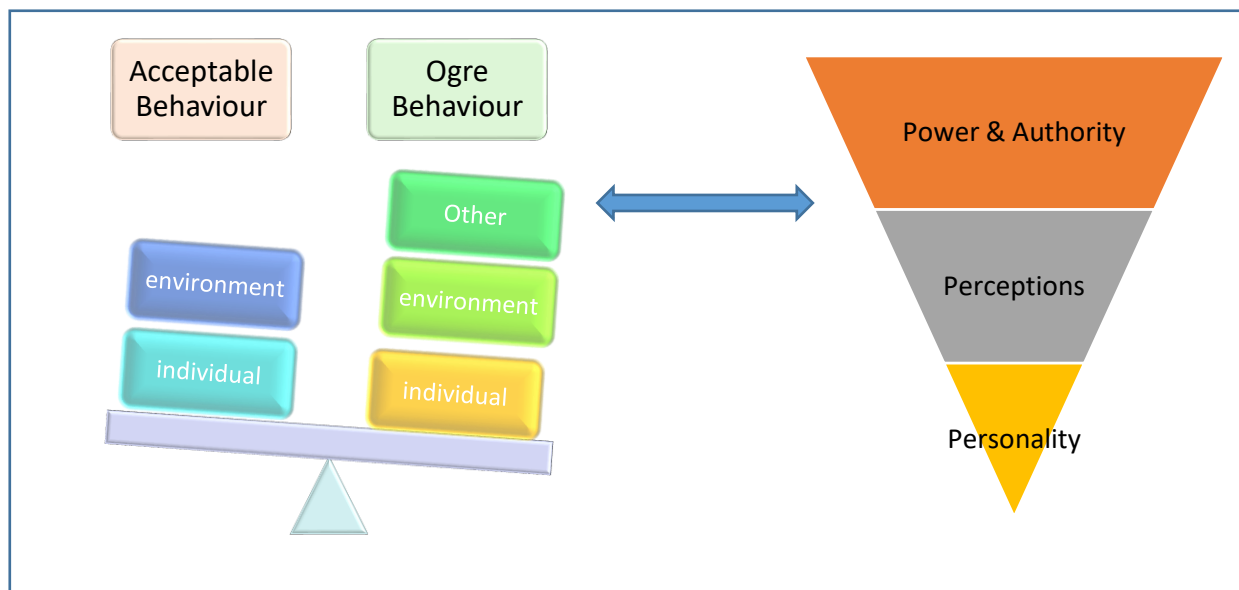


Figure 1.1. The ‘other’ factor.

The explanations for the ‘other’ can be wide and varied, and this study focuses on three possible factors for the ‘other’; those being power and authority, perceptions, and personality. These factors can be considered through the lens of current research and theoretical perspectives to identify underpinning dynamics to the behaviour, and do not require clinical diagnosis. This research and theory is outlined in the next chapter.

Question 1. *Is there a relationship between the desire for power/authority and ogre behaviours?*

A key element in *ogre* behaviour is the frequency and duration of abuse of authority in relationships where there is an existence of power imbalance (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009, Lewis, 2006; MacIntosh, 2005). Up to 71% of *ogres* are leaders or, more significantly, in a perceived position of power and these relationship power imbalances are mirrored in organisational hierarchies across schools and workplaces (Einarsen et al., 2009, MacIntosh, 2005, WorkCover, 2010b).

Abuse of formal power based on organisational position is a common interpretation of bullying in the workplace and 70-80% of bullying in Australia is reported to be from higher levels of the supervision and management hierarchy (Hurley et al., 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2010, Kelly, 2006). The public sector similarly reports that 75% of bully victims have been victimised by a manager or supervisor (Hoel & Beale, 2006). Such *ogres* can come into existence when stressful changing workplaces lead to uncertainty in professional status where they have a desire to compete for respect and job control (van Heugten, 2010).

However, there is a gap in the research that considers *ogres* in terms of their desire for power and authority when they are not already in a position of power. Managers may be bullies, but what is not fully understood is if there is a relationship between the desire to be one of those authoritarian figures, and the behaviour that *ogres* exhibit. This issue has determined the first research question.

Question 2. *To what extent are negative interactions by ogres influenced by personality?*

Even though bullies who have *ogre* behaviours are more frequent in private than public organisations, they are still found in both public and private Education and Healthcare professions; these are known as the “caring” professions (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007, MacIntosh, 2005; Quine, 2001; van Heugten, 2010). Victimization in these sectors is under researched as it is seen as a taboo subject in these occupations that are assumed to be compassionate (Randle et al., 2007; van Heugten, 2010; Zapf & Einarsen, 2001). A majority of *ogres* in the UK are in a superior role within their organisation, and these individuals typically begin to develop bullying behaviours after they have progressed well up the corporate ladder (Baldoni, 2005, Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001).

The gap in the research for this question lies in the relationship between personality and attraction to the caring professions. It is argued that a certain personality type will be

attracted to professions that care for others, or nurture our youth, for example. What has not been explored is if there is a relationship between those personalities and *ogre* behaviours in schools.

Question 3. *How do individual perceptions of industrial law contribute to ogre behaviours?*

Conflicts are often difficult to solve depending on perceptions of those involved in the dispute (Eigen & Litwin, 2014). When the workplaces are dominated by females, as the Education sector in Tasmania is, conflicts are perceived to be harsher compared to male-dominated workplaces (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). This may be because gender perception plays a significant role. It is argued that female *ogres* are reported as exhibiting behaviours that are largely hidden and take on a subtler form than male *ogre* behaviours (Aquino, 2000; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leichting, 2005; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). Women are also more likely to inflict psychological rather than physical harm (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007) suggesting again that their *ogre* actions are more subtle (Aquino, 2000; Hoel et al., 2001; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). This behaviour also requires a level of social intelligence or the behaviour would not be possible to sustain (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007).

Therefore, there is a gap in the research which considers *ogres* in terms of perceptions. It has been established from the above that there are clear differences between males and females in their behaviours, and there is a multitude of research demonstrating that males and females perceive things differently but what has not been considered is if perceptions overall contribute to *ogre* behaviour, if at all. This leads to the third research question.

Question 4. *In what ways do Grievance Procedures contribute to the reinforcement of ogre behaviours?*

There is evidence to support that current interventions for resolution (e.g., policy, procedure, unions, courts, and arbitrators) within workplaces can be significantly improved through empowering the victim and by having clear influences from guidelines and statements in policy (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). This is indicative of the need for further research to support the current study, while also contributing to improved tools for identification of, and reducing of *ogre* behaviours in the workplace. A case study analysis will contribute to the development of an alternative or modified approach to current Grievance Procedures that ultimately has the potential to support or permit the continued disruption to relationships triggered by the school *ogre*.

Case Study Research Design

This study analyses archived personnel files retrospectively to gain an advantage over and above psychometrics and interviews. This research uses the case study technique with a Content Analysis methodology as a qualitative analysis that is able to clearly provide insights into traces of patterns in terms of words, themes and narratives that often go hidden in situations caused by *ogre* behaviour. Case study research provides analysis of processes and contexts that highlight theoretical issues within the phenomena being subject to the detailed investigation (Cassell & Symon, 2004; Dul & Hak, 2015; Robert & Yin, 2003). Further, case studies have been recognised as an effective research strategy in their own right because confidence in them has grown and case study research has become one of the most widely used strategies in organisational studies (Cassell & Symon, 2004). Case study research is also recognised as having challenges (Kohlbacher, 2006) as it has not always been used as a tool to quantify behaviours; for example, exposures to workplace issues. The Content Analysis methodology is outlined in depth in Chapter 3. Case study design can be described as a diverse activity that encompasses a range of research methods and techniques, with

various levels and opportunities for analysis, in a variety of lengths and levels of activity (Yin, 2003a).

A case study archival design is able to meaningfully preserve the complete characteristics of actual events; indicating that it can serve as a significant function in hypothesis generation and theory development (Cassell & Symon, 2004). This is because archival design case studies are able to cope with situations where results are reliant on numerous evidence sources with multiple variables. Consequently, archival design case studies provide a stronger link between unclear boundaries through investigating contemporary phenomenon that are contained within real-life circumstances (Robert & Yin, 2003). For example, it is ideal for capturing managerial process and related events that are out of control of the researcher (Cassell & Symon, 1994).

Archival design case study analysis is also argued as being a strategy for research, rather than an actual methodology because it allows the researcher to choose the case that will be studied and apply a methodology that best suits the case study, such as Content Analysis (Cassell & Symon, 1994; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Jenner & Titscher, 2000), Content Analysis is a model methodology for the examination of case study data (Kohlbacher, 2006), and a thorough outline of its benefits and limitations is outlined later in this thesis.

Archival design case studies using Content Analysis are also prevalent within grievance research (Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009; Gazso, 2004; Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009). They have generally been used to replicate previous studies, provide reviews of literature or to confirm theoretical assumptions. However, the use of qualitative and quantitative data can overcome such an issue, as the case study technique allows for the collection of both (Robert & Yin, 2003). This challenge can then be transformed into an advantage of the case study strategy (Cassell & Symon, 1994).

Therefore, for the purpose of this research, both qualitative and quantitative data was collected. This resulted in the case study being determined by analysis of individual cases and theoretical orientations, rather than through the research method (Cassell & Symon, 2004; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The major objective of any case study should be to develop a deep understanding of the behaviours, interactions, and sentiments of the participants in the case study during a time period of specific processes (Woodside, 2010). That is exactly what the research aimed to achieve by using a case study. Therefore, the case study technique has been determined as highly effective for the exploration of concerns that have been documented by staff members who are no longer employees in the case study school.

Contribution to Knowledge

There have been a number of articles written about bullying behaviour in the workplace. One does not need to read far to obtain professional or academic literature that discusses policy and business practice regarding bullying. However, development of educational policy and practice regarding *ogre* behaviour is always evolving and it is proposed that this research will contribute to that knowledge in two specific ways.

Firstly, it is anticipated that this study will facilitate interest in *ogre* like behaviours and encourage school investigations to replicate and identify further concepts that ensure *ogre* behaviour techniques are monitored and decreased by early interventions where possible, or through existing tools that are available within the school. Secondly, there is an urgent need to have some mechanisms to assist *ogre* targets to be able to seek support.

On many occasions, the author has witnessed and heard reports where a staff member has asked for support from leaders and has not been supported as the *ogre* behaviour is not significant enough to be firmly disciplined or performance managed. This has made it more challenging for the target to seek support and it often results in resignation of the target rather than resolution of the *ogre* behaviour. There is a need for policy review and training to focus

on record keeping, reporting, recognising, and solving such incidents (Ringstad, 2005).

Therefore, as a consequence of this contribution to knowledge, it is predicted that this study will whet the appetite of other academics and school leaders to further explore and modify practice and policy.

Figure 1.2 presents a pathway, developed by the researcher, to solutions based on Social Cognitive theory, research, and underpinning factors that contribute to *ogre* behaviour. This pathway was developed after extensive reading of theory underpinning this study and it also takes into account the results from the data analysis; with the intention of be improved outcomes from policy and procedure. In isolation, no theory, research, factor or procedure can explain *ogre* behaviour, but combined, they may form a framework for decreasing the behaviour. This model is proposed as a way to investigate *ogre* behaviours. It is primarily informed by motivations for *ogre* like behaviour, which are best explored within the factors of power and authority, perception and personality, and explained by Social Cognitive theory.

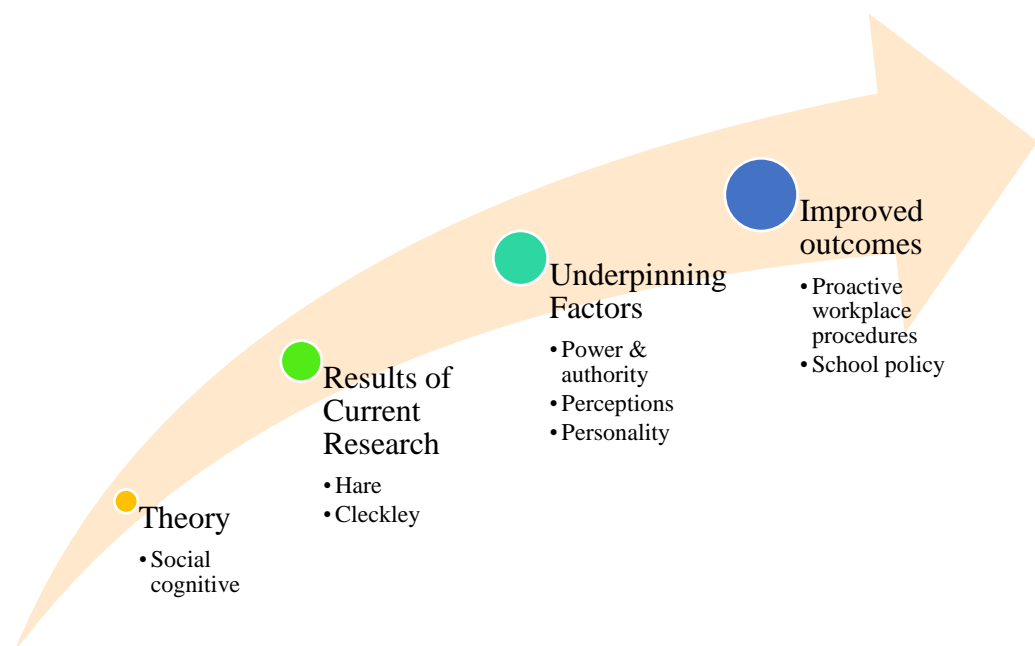


Figure 1.2. Pathway to solutions.

Chapter Summaries

As outlined above, chapter 1 introduces the reader to the concept of *ogres*, the research questions, and the context in which the research has been undertaken and the technique used. This chapter has presented an argument for this research and provides the building blocks for the remainder of the thesis.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature. It commences by outlining theoretical perspectives and critically examines the key research that has measured, quantified, and published findings about behaviour similar to *ogre* behaviour. The chapter concludes with a discussion of processes and procedures that appear to have been less than successful in decreasing *ogre* behaviour in the workplace, and presents an alternative framework for consideration.

Chapter 3 commences with an outline of the positivist paradigm for this research, based within a relativist ontology and subjective epistemology. The chapter outlines two theoretical perspectives, namely Feminist contributions, and the significance of Social Cognitive Theory to this research. Chapter 3 concludes with detailed information on how the paradigm, methods and theoretical perspective have been applied to the current study.

Chapter 4 provides a complete overview of the methodology used, its strengths and its limitations, and why it was chosen for this research. The chapter outlines how the methods, and theoretical perspective highlights the strengths of Content and Leximancer Analysis. It also argues that used together with a case study design and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) they are the most suitable methodological tools for a multi-layered and multi-level archival study (Lee & Peterson, 1997). Furthermore, it is argued that SCT has reduced the limitations of the method by demonstrating the assumption that forethought is the prediction of human behaviour.

Chapter 5 presents the results and explains how Leximancer Analysis was used to evaluate a documented Grievance Procedure and how Content Analysis was used to review

formal archival files. The chapter begins with an introductory background to the study, and then presents the results from the Content Analysis. Results of the Leximancer Analysis of the case study school's Grievance Procedure follows to showcase how both techniques, on retrospective document analysis, can provide us with vital information for identifying *ogres* in the workplace.

Chapter 6 provides a discussion and draws the thesis together. The chapter presents an analysis of the results in terms of the research questions. The questions are interpreted in accordance with the contemporary research reviewed in chapter 2, and supported by Social Cognitive Theory as outlined in chapter 3. Research questions 1, 2 and 3 are answered using the results of the Content Analysis of archived personnel files, and question 4 is answered in accordance with the themes and concepts identified by Leximancer in the case study school's Grievance Procedure. Following the discussion of results, limitations of the research are then outlined, and the chapter closes with recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The House of Representative Standing Committee on Education and Employment (2012) state that *ogres* can cost the Australia economy up to \$36 billion per year. We know this because *ogre* behaviour in the workplace has been studied within the definitions of bullying, psychopathic personalities, or a range of other behaviours with an interesting array of terms (Crawshaw, 2009). These terms have been discussed in chapter 1. Consequently, several perspectives were evident within the literature review to explain these behaviours. Some authors choose not to link their research to a model, others developed or contributed to current theory. As a result, much of the understanding of *ogre* behaviour in the workplace has been drawn from fields of psychology (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Hare et al., 1991; Hutchinson et al., 2010), and many of the theoretical underpinnings discussed in detail in this chapter were also obtained or borrowed from psychology.

Inspired by Cleckley's (1955) early research into psychopathic personalities, Robert Hare designed and developed a checklist for trained clinicians that identified psychopathy in individuals (Hare et al., 1991). Hare's career has focussed around researching and providing an insight into psychopaths, particularly those who have been incarcerated. The current checklist can be identified as the Psychopathic Checklist Revised (PCL-R) and it measures interpersonal, affective, lifestyle, and antisocial factors (Hare, 1993). The checklist is widely used by training clinicians to assess psychopathy in the criminal justice system and beyond.

Hare later worked with Paul Babiak who has a particular interest in psychopathic traits in the workplace (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Babiak has taken the lead in researching the *corporate psychopath* and has developed the Business-Scan 360 (B-Scan) with Hare. A trial of the B-Scan resulted in a reliable 20 item, 4 factor rating scale that anyone can use to rate others in the organisations. The 4 factors consist of manipulative/unethical, callous/

insensitive, unreliable/unfocussed, and intimidating/aggressive (Mathieu, Hare, Jones, Babiak, & Neumann, 2013). In Australia, similar publications, in regards to psychopathic personalities have been published without scales by John Clarke (Clarke, 2001, 2005).

Research from Hare (2016) and colleagues (e.g., Mathieu, Babiak, Jones, Neuman & Hare 2012) have continued to measure behavioural traits similar to those of the *ogre*. These traits include lying, irresponsibility, lack of empathy, superficial charm, intimidation, impatience, and lack of loyalty, for example. However, they are a little different to the *ogre* as the *ogre* has been defined in terms of their impact on others; not through a tool that has tested them for psychopathic tendencies. We are also unable to determine a history of psychopathy without clinical tools. As a result, exploring data on victims of bullying is vital to the current inquiry that uses retrospective archival research.

Victims of bullies have participated in several international studies to determine its origin (E.g., Samnani & Singh, 2016; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007), who the main perpetrators are (E.g., Glambeek, Skogstad, Einarsen, 2015; Roscigno et al., 2009), its impacts (E.g., Birkeland, Ståle, Guy, & Geir Høstmark, 2016; Einarsen et al., 1994), and prevention (Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). This is relevant to the current study as often *ogres* are accused of being bullies for withholding information. In a school, this may mean that the accused *ogre* has not given the victim teacher details about changes to their class timetable, for example.

Therefore, much of the research that is available concerns convicted criminals in jails or victims of bullies from various workplaces. The authors cited above have laid very solid foundations for studies similar to this current study, although they are not sufficient for some types of behaviours. They are also not focussed within the context of a school, or on individuals that do not fit the clinical categories of psychopath or bully. Often, they are accused of being a psychopath or a bully because they are so difficult to work with.

However, they have not been clinically diagnosed as psychopaths, nor are they likely to be judged as a bully by the Fair Work Commission, but they are incredibly problematic to colleagues and leaders of their workplaces (Clarke, 2005; Crawshaw, 2007; Babiak & Hare, 2006). Most of these individuals will not face prison time for crimes, even if their behaviour is criminal. However, they can cause similar grief to those that are affected by their behaviour (Babiak & Hare, 2006). These people are not psychopathic criminals such as those that Hare (1993) has dedicated much of his career to, but are *ogres* who make a career by causing grief for others for their own advantage.

What the research does agree on is that *ogre* behaviour appears to be the product of interactions between power and authority (Clarke, 2005; Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, 2011; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis et al., 2008), personality (Cleckley, 1955; Crawshaw, 2007; Hare, 1993; Lewis et al., 2008; Piotrowsky & King 2014), and perceptions (Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003; Eigen & Litwin, 2014; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). There are certainly a number of other factors that may contribute to *ogre* behaviour, but the pros and cons of such models are too wide and varied to discuss in detail. However, the merit of research about these models to inform contemporary research has not gone unnoticed (Aquino, 2000; Ashforth, 1997; Einarsen et al., 1994; Kaukiainen et al., 2001; Roscigno et al., 2009). Thus, this inquiry focussed on power and authority, personality, and perceptions only. The prominent authors are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Prominent Literature Perspectives.

Topic	Author	Discipline	Measures	Notions
Bullying	Strandmark et al Hoel et al	Sociology	Self-reports	Power
Psychopaths	Cleckley Hare	Psychology	Psych testing	Personality
‘Others’	Clarke Crawshaw	Business	Interviews	Power and Personality

Research conducted to date has not studied the topic within the Tasmanian secondary education context, so cannot adequately explain nor define the behaviour being considered for this research. What this current research offers, but has not been conducted previously, is a study on the topic of school *ogres*. The study of school *ogres* is multi-topical, has a multi-disciplinary application, conveyed through analysis of documents, and provides theoretically supported explanations of behaviour through power, personality, and perceptions.

If this type of contemporary research is joined with a pertinent social psychological theory we can develop a deeper understanding of the ‘other’ factor (Figure 1.1) that results in overall *ogre* behaviour. We would also be presented with a complementary foundation for understanding that negative workplace behaviours are the result of interactions between the individual, the environment, and other factors (e.g., power/authority, personality, and perceptions).

This literature review commences by outlining theoretical perspectives and critically examines the key research that has measured, quantified, and published findings about behaviour similar to *ogre* behaviour. The chapter concludes with a discussion of strategies used to decrease the *ogre* behaviour in the school as a workplace, and present an alternative framework for consideration.

Key research

Behavioural measurements in bullying research have been extensive, but some are of more use to this study than others. Of particular reference to this study, research has revealed that measurements in three domains can contribute to behaviour in both positive and negative ways. The following section outlines the interactions between the domains of power and authority, personality, and perceptions, and how they can serve to explain *ogre* behaviour when these interactions become skewed.

Figure 2.1 provides a possible conceptual framework of how these interactions work, but note that power and authority may be a substantial external or environmental factor that is out of one's individual control. Whereas often overlapping and interrelating, personality traits and our perceptions, are internal mechanisms that are somewhat within our individual control, and can also produce different behaviours depending on the individual.

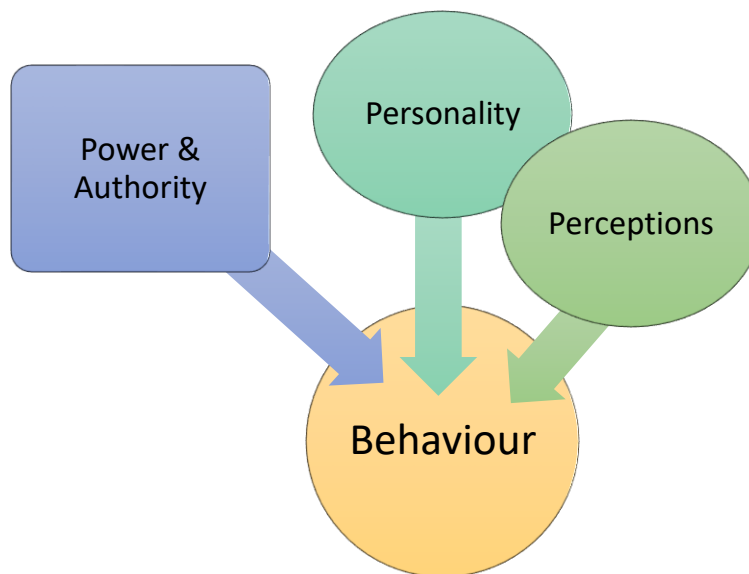


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework.

Power and authority. Power and authority is a fundamental theme through the bullying research, and workplace bullying behaviour parallels *ogre* behaviour in many ways. In particular, the battle for power and authority causes conflict that can develop into bullying if not resolved and therefore it is not surprising that unequal distribution of power rates highly among the reported causes for bullying (Ashforth, 1997; Broome, 2008; Guimarães, Cançado, & Lima, 2016; Samnani & Singh, 2015; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). Furthermore, those in positions of power can abuse that power and demonstrate bullying behaviours in that abuse (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Guimarães, Cançado,

& Lima, 2016; Hoel et al., 2001; Hoel, Faragher, & Cooper, 2004). This evidence poses insight into the current research question: Is there a relationship between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours? This section considers that question while exploring the relevant studies of Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) and Hoel et al. (2001, 2004).

Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) and Strandmark & Rahm (2014) argue that workplace bullying research is greatly needed in the risk groups of health care, social services and schools. Their studies aimed to facilitate preventions to workplace bullying by exploring how bullying originates at work. They used grounded theory methodology to investigate the conditions under which bullying in the workplace evolved. True to grounded theory methodology, they developed conceptual classifications while interviewing 22 victims. As a result, they were able generate four separate categories from the coding of their data to illuminate conditions under which any type of covert or overt bullying can develop. Their categories comprised of ‘potential arena for conflicts’, ‘professional and personal value’, ‘personal strength and vulnerability’, and ‘struggling for power’.

They established that the category of ‘struggling for power’ was a core category to their research because it highlighted the social progression toward bullying, confirming that unresolved power struggles can pave the way to bullying behaviour. The participants outlined that the bullying from struggles for power originated from weak or indistinct leadership (e.g., few job boundaries), unclear roles (e.g., position descriptions were not clear, or inconsistent with required work), personality differences (e.g., introvert versus extrovert), and value clashes (e.g. humanistic versus materialistic). Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) found that with weak leadership, an unofficial leader will assume any gap that a weak leader does not fill, therefore, becoming seen as the actual leader in the eyes of the team. This would be an ideal circumstance for *ogres* because of their desire to have leadership power

and their ability to nurture positive relationships with anyone who may assist them in meeting their goal (Hare, 1993: Strandmark & Rahm, 2014).

In a school environment, power, and its consequential bullying (or similar *ogre*) behaviour, according to the findings of Strandmark and Hallberg's (2007) and Strandmark & Rahm (2014), would be the result of interplay between poor organisational conditions (i.e., conflicting procedures on what to do if presented with a potential *ogre*), unclear or weak leadership (i.e. a Principal who is not trained in conflict resolution), personality differences (i.e., assertive Deputy Principal versus introvert teacher) and expectation of work duties (i.e., contradiction between position descriptions and actual duties performed). Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) clarified that boundaries for behaviour in all of these categories and the workplace need to be well-defined to decrease bullying, and to lessen the instances where power is gained at the expense of others, as is the modus operandi for *ogres*.

Strandmark and Hallberg's (2007) research is good progress toward answering if there is a relationship between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours. Though it may also suggested that they did not acknowledge the organisational hierarchies which have also been cited as a condition under which bullying for power may originate (Hoel et al., 2001). Hierarchical status would have positioned well in the 'potential arena for conflicts' category, though was overlooked by the researchers. To clarify, power has been defined as "control over resources, people and things" (Elliot & Smith, 2004, p. 365). Power in the workplace is generally limited to the place in which the individual is located in the organisational hierarchy, with hierarchy being determined by the level of leadership one holds within the organisation (Samnani & Singh, 2016). In a school, a Deputy Principal holds a higher hierarchical position in comparison to an office assistant. Conventionally, the higher you are in the hierarchy, the more power you will hold. In comparison to bullies,

ogres also desire to be at the top of the hierarchy and to hold all of the power for the benefit of themselves (Babiak, Neumann, & Hare, 2010).

A hierarchy, like power, is external to the individual, but can also affect behaviour through its interrelationship with power (see Figure 2.1). Hoel and colleagues (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Hoel et al., 2001) stated that hierarchies are historically developed (MacIntosh, 2005; Randle et al., 2007) and therefore may be difficult to alter as there is often an age-old top-down bully system created from a need to preserve positions of leadership and status in the hierarchy.

Research by Hoel et al. (2001, 2004) claimed that little attention has been given to the relationship between bullying and hierarchy position, and with other colleagues (Hoel & Beale, 2006), they have devoted considerable time to researching power relationships in terms of organisational hierarchies. For example, in 2001 they conducted a study in the UK to explore the differences in bullying experiences across an organisational hierarchy. They distributed and later analysed 5288 questionnaires from participants to measure exposure to bullying. They used a global definition of bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), and a modified Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997) that lists 29 negative behaviours. Respondents were asked to state the frequency of their exposure to each act within the previous six months. Duration of the behaviour was measured to identify the prevalence of bullying, variation of bullying between hierarchies, the likely status of the bully, and the behaviours frequently identified with bullying.

Most respondents (74.7%) reported that they were bullied by someone who was a supervisor or manager, and the bullying was experienced for more than a year. Similar results have been identified in more recent studies indicating that 83% of supervisors or managers have bullied (Lewis & Gunn, 2007). This shows that in a little over a decade, there

has been an increase in supervisors and managers bullying; compared to the earlier report of 54% (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).

Other supporting research also reveals that line managers (e.g., faculty heads and deputy Principals) are more likely than senior managers (e.g., Principals) to bully their subordinates. Furthermore, reports of *ogre* behaviour by professionals in managerial roles show that most were bullied by their supervisors, (Lewis & Gunn, 2007; Salin, 2001; van Heugten, 2010), although it has been suggested that this may be due to staff having less contact with senior managers than their line manager.

Hoel and Beale (2006) illustrated that it is common for bullying behaviour to be present in the practice of performance appraisals and in professional supervision sessions (van Heugten, 2007). This has been cited to be a direct result of power, vulnerability and competition (Jennifer, Cowie, & Ananiadou, 2003; Roscigno et al., 2009), because the perpetrators of bullying have often been found to be jealous or resentful of the qualifications of their victims (Björkqvist, 2001; Mishra, 2009; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). Thus, the Deputy Principal may direct the majority of their behaviour toward one teacher who they previously had a very good relationship with, for example. However, this teacher may have recently graduated from a master or doctoral course, and is now eligible for promotion to Deputy Principal when the position becomes vacant at the end of the current contract.

Hence, the traditional hierarchical structures experienced in large schools also breed the culture of normalisation with *ogre* behaviour, particularly with staff who are low in the hierarchical structure or even intern teachers who may not have the power or confidence to report their concerns (Randle et al., 2007). Staff are also less likely to complain about *ogre* behaviour from superiors as they perceive their senior leaders (E.g. Deputy Principals, Business Managers and Directors) to hold more power within the school based on their level in the leadership hierarchy (Foster, 2011; Randle et al., 2007). This may be an explanation as

to why the leadership style used by perpetrators positively correlated with *ogre* behaviour (Einarsen et al., 1994; Hutchinson et al., 2010). Arguably, hierarchical status may perpetrate *ogre* behaviour as the higher the status of a person, the more protected they may be from being challenged about victimising others.

To provide an anecdotal example from the investigator, an *ogre* who is a Deputy Principal, who ultimately aspires to become the Principal, may regularly assert their authority to those that are responsible to them. Often this may be with comments such as "...I make the final decisions here", and "...that's just how it is going to be". This is contrary to the expected behaviour of a Deputy Principal who would generally be attempting to facilitate teamwork, where all are treated as equal colleagues, and are expected to provide input into decisions. These *ogres* would also be likely to see the administrative support workers as existing only to serve the interests of the *ogre* to assist in the progress to the Principal role. They would be largely ignored unless required to type letters at short notice, or contact parents to make appointments with the *ogre* to discuss a student's behaviour, or undertake administrative duties that would commonly be required by a Deputy Principal, for example.

In these instances, under certain circumstances, such behaviour would be acceptable. Particularly if it was only once or twice when it occurred, and in emergency situations. However, the *ogre* behaves like this regularly unless the Principal (whom they need approval from) is in close location (Babiak, Neumann & Hare, 2010). Therefore, there will always be an explanation from the *ogre* about the behaviour, particularly if someone complains to the Principal about the multitude of minor issues that have occurred since the Deputy Principal was appointed; issues that are not significant enough to place a complaint to the Principal through the schools formal Grievance Procedure (Crawshaw, 2010). Similarly, without this behaviour impinging on workplace rights, union representation would also be fruitless. Furthermore, the Principal would most possibly be the main influence on the selection panel

for the Deputy, and would prefer to think that they had made the correct decision in appointing the Deputy Principal. After all, the Deputy is second in charge, and will be acting as Principal when required.

These studies signify that those superior in the hierarchy (i.e. in leadership positions), who hold power by default (due to their job role) are more likely to bully and exhibit *ogre* behaviours (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel et al., 2001; Lewis & Gunn, 2007; Salin, 2001; van Heugten, 2010). It may be proposed that this situation is the result of leaders competing for roles in an environment where there is an emphasis on student rights. This emphasis increases the accountability of leadership and escalates their stress through role ambiguity, low staffing levels, and little control over their work (van Heugten, 2010); all of these scenarios anecdotally describe the education sector in Tasmania. Therefore, power and authority challenges as a result of hierarchical status, or inadequate leadership can be argued to be the equivalent of a breeding ground for *ogres*. This is because *ogres* are aiming to increase their power and status (Babiak & Hare, 2006) through behaviours similar to bullying.

Therefore, it can be justifiably reasoned that unequal power distributions may facilitate the development of school *ogres*. Furthermore, it may be argued that the work environment may unintentionally support the behaviour (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Hurley et al, 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2010) through structures and processes such as internal competition (for the Principals job), internal policy (Grievance Procedures), and even external interventions (unions), for example (Kelly, 2006). This consequently supports Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) and Strandmark & Rahm (2014) later findings by claiming that authoritarian styles, poor communication, and abuse of power are the highest correlates with *ogre* behaviour (Lewis & Orford, 2005; MacIntosh, 2005). Accordingly, these studies are extremely valuable in the information that they can offer in regard to *ogre* behaviour in the

Tasmanian context, and the possible link between *ogre* behaviour and the desire for power and authority. Research indicates that there is there a relationship between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours.

Perceptions. We know that individual perceptions can contribute to accusations of *ogre* behaviour because Kelly (2006) warned that the perceptions of behaviour are highly reliant on the criteria and definitions used by the researcher. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) also argued that perceptions of behaviour are individualised and may differ amongst people, and this is also highly dependent on cultural conventions in the workplace (Sidle, 2010). So the meaning that participants give to criteria and any cultural differences have the potential to create a variance in comparable research results (Aquino, 2000; Kaukiainen et al., 2001). Arguably, not knowing this background, and providing a definition to participants before a study commences may alter their perception of the behaviour and in turn, skew the final results.

For example, in Tasmania, bullying is defined as psychological and/or physical violence (WorkCover, 2010a). WorkCover Tasmania use this very broad definition as a basis for their research, statistics, and communications about bullying within the Tasmanian work context; though the definition may be different to studies conducted with international (Sidle, 2010), or even interstate counterparts, and possibly yield different results.

Furthermore, the Fair Work Commission (2016) uses a more refined definition directly from the Fair Work Act (2009) which states that “bullying takes place when a person or group of people repeatedly behaves unreasonable toward a worker or a group of workers at work and the behaviour creates a risk to health and safety” (p. 1). As a result, research outcomes on the same group of individuals in Tasmania may differ depending on who conducts the study (WorkCover or the Fair Work Commission) and what the nationality is of

the participants, even though both are using health and safety as their standard. Accordingly results of behaviour studies are only relevant to the definition used in the respective study and the perceptions recorded in any self-report questionnaires.

Not surprisingly, all studies consulted for this literature review offered the participants a researcher-defined characterisation of bullying behaviour as there is not a universal definition available (Hurley et al., 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2010; Lewis & Gunn, 2007). Likewise, there is not a definition available for an *ogre* or school *ogre* so the current study has also used the researcher defined explanation of *ogre* behaviour, as outlined in chapter 1. Thus, the studies referred to in this literature review only explored results from people that perceived they were victims, based on the definition provided by the researcher. This restriction resolved any potential validity concerns with victim defined bullying.

As a consequence, definitions of *ogre* behaviour and the various terms used in the research have also been criticised for its range of criteria (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Keashly, 2010; Lewis et al., 2008; Zapf & Einarsen, 2001). For example, Aquino (2000) administered 369 surveys to determine organisational hierarchical leadership status and perceived victimisation. He found that there was a correlation between the perception of behaviour and certain conflict styles and status in the hierarchy. He also felt that his study captured the power base relating to hierarchical status on victimisation. Research on similar topics is also available from Norway, Sweden and Britain (Aquino, 2000).

This is a good indicator that the majority of studies are not different to Aquino (2000) in their variety of measures, mostly based on an inventory designed to detect negative behaviours associated with bullying, or the participants have been offered a definition of behaviour from the outset of the research. The respondents are then required to determine if they fit the criteria, or perceive the behaviour to fit the criteria. Therefore, the definition of bullying behaviour really rests within the subjective perception of the victim (Hoel et al.,

2004), and this literature review has clearly demonstrated the need to be aware of perceptual ideas of *ogre* behaviour by the victim.

Perception concerns are also one of the shortfalls in Strandmark and Hallberg's (2007) study, and it will be addressed by the current research. For example, individual reports were used in the research, and the perceptions of those reports are present in the data analysis. Thus, the material depends on what the person perceived as bullying, rather than factual written case study accounts as per the current inquiry. Fifteen women and seven men aged between 17 and 77 participated in the Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) study, but the current research had access to many more subjects ($N = 430$) without the validity being compromised by perceptions.

Fortunately, the qualitative study by Baillien, et al. (2009) was a good example of one that is better able to reject possible perceptual variances and attribution errors, as they provided an in-depth analysis of behaviour through qualitative case studies, which enabled the generation of a theory. From the 126 interviews, 87 individuals identified or had knowledge of cases of bullying within their organisation and 56 of those were incidents of supervisors bullying their subordinates or supporting/ignoring bullying within the department they were in charge. The global theory that Baillien, et al (2009) highlighted was that there is not one single cause of bullying or trigger for becoming a victim. There are various pathways that are interrelated and complementary, comparable to the research model shown in Figure 2.1, although, their theory combines the majority of these causes and triggers into three distinct pathways to bullying. Those pathways are intrapersonal (frustrations), interpersonal (conflicts), and stimulation through team and organisational factors (organisational culture).

First, intrapersonal pathways can be linked to violence and it is common for victims to blame themselves for the behaviour at the onset, and significantly under report the

incidents of *ogre* behaviour (Kelly, 2006; Lanza, McMillan, DeMaio, & Lefebvre, 2010).

Therefore, perceptions of a school *ogre* may be linked to non-reporting of *ogre* behaviour and may even provoke negative behaviour (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). For example, Mary would consider herself as being irrational when she perceives exclusion from meetings and an extra workload as bullying. She may tell herself that it is her job to take on extra tasks and only attend important meetings when asked. However, if this is a regular occurrence, the exclusion makes it difficult for Mary to do her job effectively, and the extra workload is unrealistic and causes extreme stress to Mary; she may very well be experiencing bullying or *ogre* behaviour through abuse of power from the Deputy Principal, and maybe even the Principal, too. By not reporting the behaviour Mary may even be unintentionally aggravating the situation by reinforcing to her superiors that she is able to undertake an extra workload and not attend meetings that may be vital to her role.

Secondly, interpersonal conflict can arise because *ogre* behaviour is often not recognised as taking place until a serious pattern was well established by the perpetrator. Many victims experience ambiguity like Mary, in early *ogre* behaviour and therefore contribute the behaviour to their own inadequacy (Kelly, 2006; Lewis, 2006). Many perceived the early behaviour as insignificant and did not realise that *ogre* behaviour was taking place, causing them distress; it was not until later that they realised they were the victim of power abuse within their school. The participants later felt that their coping strategy was to create a barrier by minimising the behaviour.

Third, in terms of organisational culture, the work environment has been cited as a contributing factor to the perceptions we hold of bullying (Coyne et al., 2003; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). For example, power and conflict based interpretations of *ogre* behaviour in the workplace have been criticised for being singular interpretations of power which are not analysed deeper within the dynamics of the environment (Hurley et al., 2016; Hutchinson et

al., 2010). This suggests that there may be misperceptions associated with the act of behaviour (E.g., bullying, asserting authority) and the context in which it takes place (E.g., workplace, home, or other environment).

Overall, the demands, values and practices of the school may be reflected in the perceptions of bullying among the targets (Lewis, 2006), and qualitative data from Nielsen and Einarsen (2012) indicated that any constructive passive and active conflict solving strategies initially used by victims, and modified as time goes on, did not work. It is this type of environment where power, status, hierarchy, and perceptions are causing conflict can result in the *ogre* habitually presenting or trying to present power ownership.

Therefore, it is well argued that perceptions may make a difference to the volume of *ogre* behaviour experienced by the victim. This may be more so if the self-reflection of their perceptions is incongruent across their experiences, as Social Cognitive Theory (hereafter SCT) may indicate (Bandura, 1986). Ultimately, it has been established that perceptions do contribute to our experiences of bullying, but the question remains unanswered as to how does individual perceptions contribute to *ogre* behaviours? This question has been considered through the current study.

Personality. Conflicting views of personality and environmental factors have been presented in literature, but research acknowledges that personality does play a part in *ogre* behaviours. Some authors give full credit to personality (Clarke, 2005) and others to environmental factors (Saam, 2010). However, even though there are a variety of explanations, the majority believe that both personality (of the victim and the bully) and environmental factors contribute in some way to *ogre* behaviours, albeit in differing measures (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Seigne, Coyne, Randall, & Parker, 2007). Though, it is authors who focus on personality that are explored in this section, because the arguments regarding personality as the main contributor to school *ogres* is widespread. This

argument supports the claim that school leadership and the colleagues of an *ogre* generally blame personality rather than environment for the behaviour of the perpetrator (Björkqvist, 1994; Björkqvist & Österman, 2014; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2011; Seigne et al., 2007; Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Zapf & Gross, 2001). These authors also provide a starting point to answering the research question: to what extent are negative interactions by *ogres* influenced by personality?

Firstly, Matthiesen and Einarsen (2001) used the MMPI-2 to profile the personality of 85 bullying victims, after measuring their exposure to bullying via the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ). They found that the type of bullying and intensity is correlated with personality type, and according to the MMPI-2, the victim had an elevated personality type on psychological disturbances. Such victims are likely to be in denial, or displacement regarding their treatment from the bully (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001). This is supported with Kelly's (2006) claim regarding under-reporting of bullying due to denial of victim status, and also supported the current research definition of the *ogre* in terms of covert bullying that is under-reported.

To illustrate, a school *ogre* in the role of a unit coordinator may have the ability to lead his or her team of teachers in a way that encourages innovative methods to increase interest in the science curriculum, as well as meeting the schools strategic goal of increased student numbers. This may appear to demonstrate leadership skills to the Deputy Principal, but may actually be covert intimidation directed towards those that the unit coordinator supervises. Due to the nature of the intimidation, the teachers who report to the unit coordinator do not report the bullying, even though it is persistent and causes them significant stress. As a result, the teachers who are victims of this behaviour rate high on the MMPI-2.

Secondly, and of particular interest to the current research is Mathisen, Einarsen and Mykletun's (2011) study of the interaction between supervisor personality and bullying.

Implied in the literature is the notion that *ogres* demonstrate leadership skills and this perhaps results in acceptance from other leaders, as they are exhibiting similar traits (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Hare et al., 1991; Korabik & Ayman, 2007) and school status (Seigne et al., 2007). Mathisen et al used the NAQ with 207 participants and found a relationship between workplace bullying and the personality of the supervisor, though not as significant as they first hypothesised. Their research showed that stress was also a factor in that relationship, concurring with the research for this thesis that environment (external stress) is somewhat out of the control of the individual.

Finally, Seigne et al (2007) studied self-acknowledged bullies using a 110 item work related personality index. The ICES personality inventory (Independence, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Stability) is based on the four major scales it encompasses. They also used a clinical psychometric test, the Interpersonal Behaviour Survey (IBS), to differentiate assertiveness from aggressive behaviour. Results indicated that there was a significant difference between bullies and non-bullies on four personality indexes. Non-bullies were found to be less competitive, less assertive, less aggressive, and less confrontational than those who were bullies. These results correspond with the *ogre* behaviours outlined in chapter 1.

Even though their study was based on personality, Seigne et al (2007) are keen to point out that the personality of the victim, the interrelationship between the personalities of both *ogre* and victim, and school factors should not be ignored. This confirms earlier reports that the intensity of *ogre* behaviour experienced by the victim is related to their personality type, and that situational variables also contribute to the experience (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001). For example, a shy commencing teacher who reports to an *ogre* Principal, in a school where manipulation is inadvertently accepted as part of the culture, may feel powerless to cope with *ogre* behaviour. Conversely, a commencing teacher who is a self-confident

extrovert may not even be initially targeted by the *ogre*, but will have better coping mechanisms when they do become the victim, even though the *ogre* may behave exactly the same way toward both victims.

Therefore, the possibility of personality defects is refuted by the argument from some authors (Kelly, 2006; van Heugten, 2010) that *ogre* behaviour is learned within the school, and policies and procedures need to reflect the requirement to alter this behaviour and not the personality; particularly if the behaviour has been reinforced by rewards (van Heugten, 2010) or tolerated within the schools culture (Kelly, 2006). It is further argued that bullies need to have social skills to enable an environment that is supportive of the behaviour (Lewis & Orford, 2005). For instance, an *ogre* may have the personality to strike up a conversation at any time with strangers and colleagues alike, and they must be sophisticated manipulators to ensure that they receive what they want (Saam, 2010). In the school context, a school *ogre* may be able to receive their preferred teaching load because they know that the person responsible for the school timetable will respond favourably if the *ogre* produces tears at will in the appropriate places (Hare, 1993). This rewards the teacher that cries and reinforces that crying is an acceptable behaviour, and potentially teaches others that such behaviour is accepted within the school. Consequently, policies and procedures may exist that indicate such behaviour is not collegial, though the mandates will only be effective if they are readily available, adhered to by all levels of staff, training is provided to employees, and social support is offered at the school level (Kelly, 2006; van Heugten, 2010).

Undoubtedly, schools recognise *ogre* behaviour as a school problem on both a personality and an environmental level (e.g., stress) (Lewis, 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Saam, 2010). It is possible that variables within the school can explain behaviour aimed at harming the school, and personality variables may explain negative interpersonal behaviour. As indicated with the commencing teacher example above, the consequences

resulting from the behaviour may differ depending upon whether the behaviour is interpersonal, such as personality, or socially based (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) with the acceptable behaviours entrenched in the school culture. Therefore, research indicates that personality does contribute to *ogre* behaviours to some extent, but what has not been answered is the remaining research question: to what extent are negative interactions by *ogres* influenced by personality?

Limits to *ogre* management

Currently, there are few interventions that are available to decrease *ogre* behaviours in the workplace (Olsen, 2014). There are also insufficient supporting mechanisms available to reduce *ogre* behaviour, and there are even fewer effective constraints that reduce leaders from potential *ogre* behaviour toward their employees (Roscigno et al., 2009). Therefore, if an *ogre* is situated in a school (workplace) and is a Principal (leader) who is directing *ogre* behaviour toward a teacher, there is little evidence from the few interventions (e.g., mediation) available that *ogre* behaviour and the associated problems (e.g. relationship breakdowns, stress, resignation) can be reduced. These findings are central to the current study as they serve as background support to the local research gap that exists in Tasmania. The study is also uniquely based on the location, definition, tools, theoretical basis, and outcomes (including interventions). The following section briefly outlines the history of bullying prevention, discusses the current interventions and why they are failing, and outlines a pathway toward future bullying prevention; which in turn may reduce *ogre* behaviour.

Early interventions. Existing intervention practices begin in the schools where there is the assumption that *ogre* behaviour is confined to the playground with ‘garden variety’ child bullies (Randle et al., 2007). A successful example is the Life Events and Coping

Inventory (LECI) and the Self-Report Coping Measure (SRCM) used typically in Finnish and Danish schools respectively. These are their preferred tools to assesses coping styles in children (Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004). It is anticipated that these tools are able to determine how well children will cope with negative experiences, and so they should serve as early intervention tools for identifying how an individual may cope with bullying type behaviours.

Yet the equally successful tool, used both in Australia and internationally was designed by Dan Olweus. This tool is aimed at bullies and their victims, and the interventions used in the program are on the levels of school wide, classroom and individual (Limber, 2011; Safran, 2007). The Olweus program is designed to improve peer relations in school-aged children through the reduction of bullying. Evaluation indicates that its impacts have been positive in some areas (Olweus & Limber, 2010), such as demonstrating a decrease in bullying behaviour and improved relationships. However, it has also been criticised for being only minimally effective in other areas (Hong, 2009; Lee & Cornell, 2010). This is for five reasons outlined below.

Firstly, it has been discovered that such programs need to be individualised to specific school requirements (Limber, 2011; Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004). For example, a school in a rural location with 100 students will be different to a school in a large city with 5000 students. Secondly, staff and parents are resistant to its implementation because it is lengthy to prepare and execute, and thirdly, it does not account for gender differences, as girls are more likely to report bullying than boys. The fourth criticism lies in the viability of universal applicability of the program. This has been questioned on the basis of cultural differences, and finally, there is a requirement for the program to have a coordinator on site to actively train teachers for its implementation (Limber, 2011; Safran, 2007).

Björkqvist (2018) also claimed that additional refined forms of aggression develop as social skills mature and the ability to harm a person indirectly without being identified can result from more sophisticated *ogre* behaviour strategies as a child grows older. For example, Social Cognitive Theory would suggest that if a child's bullying behaviour is not rewarded in the first instance, then they may persist with refined behaviours until they reach the desired outcome. The child may openly snatch their class-mates lunch money, and be told immediately by the teacher to return it. But the *ogre* child may observe someone in a later grade, in a quiet corner near the canteen at recess time, using verbal persuasion to obtain another child's lunch money.

This observation affirms to the *ogre* child that being a little more overt will create success. So next time, when the *ogre* child is back in the classroom they may model similar behaviour (Bandura, 1986). He or she may take the lunch money from the other child in the cloak room when the teacher does not have the children in his or her line of sight. The *ogre* child may also tell the other child a sad story as to why they need the money, to assist in obtaining the money. The *ogre* child will then self-assess themselves as reaching the desired outcome through this particular behaviour, and refine the strategy as they age. Therefore, this program also fails to cater for those who are commencing a career of expert manipulation as an *ogre*, as critics are actually describing *ogres* when they suggest that some bullies are expert manipulators with exceptional social skills (Broome, 2008; Hare, 1993; Randle et al., 2007; Safran, 2007).

Recognition of this limitation has been ignored as ultimately, if the Olweus program was effective then bullying would be significantly reduced in schools; well before the child bully has grown into an *ogre* and entered the workforce. Consequently, there is not acknowledgment within school interventions (policies about detentions, for example) that some adults continue to be as belligerent as they were as children, because there is a failure to

recognise that the strategies used by bullies and *ogres* become more covert and specialised with maturity (Björkqvist et al., 1994), and with a preference to disguise their identity (Kaukiainen et al., 2001).

Contemporary practice. In an attempt to resolve *ogre* behaviour, existing processes aim to resolve issues that have developed. These strategies range from where those in conflict try to work through concerns alone with little formal control over the outcome (e.g., negotiation), through to the use of the court system where the third party has control and the decision is binding, such as arbitration or conciliation (Cornelius, Faire, & Cornelius, 2006). Saam (2010) argued that the interventions that could have a significant impact on the enablement of schools to decrease *ogre* behaviour shown by employees may include policy development, culture change, mediation and counselling although, their effectiveness has also been questioned (Saam, 2010); and the link between bullying and culture is under researched.

Leadership interventions such as performance management, policy/procedures and union involvement are also flawed, as they are theoretically designed to act as a guardian of poor workplace behaviours. However, in practice, they do not guard against *ogres* (Roscigno et al., 2009). Existing government policy and its interplay with school policy has also been cited as a major reason why *ogre* behaviour is not controlled (Lewis, Megicks & Jones, 2016). For example, the introduction of the National Curriculum has increased the workload of many teachers who need to re-develop their classroom plans. This increased workload may not necessarily be aligned with the Staff Workload Policies of the schools, and the school may not be in a financial position to pay overtime. As a result, many leadership members will be assisting teachers to alter their work plans, and therefore unable to spare time to attempt to resolve *ogre* behaviour, particularly if it appears to be a minor concern for leaders (a personality clash for example), as it appears to be in so many cases.

Nevertheless, various authors maintain that there are ample opportunities to undertake mediation, performance management, counselling, collaborative team work and training, and policy review and development in an attempt to resolve *ogre* behaviour (Broome, 2008; Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004; Randle et al., 2007; Zapf & Gross, 2001). These are not the only options used in workplaces, but they are the most common ones used by the majority of employers, before external sources are called upon for support. These techniques, and their shortfalls, are now briefly discussed.

Mediation is a process whereby two or more people explore their differences with a neutral facilitator. The aim is for both participants to have ‘wins’, and ultimately restore the relationship (Cornelius et al., 2006). Although one needs to acknowledge responses to *ogre* behaviour are mostly ineffective because recognition of *ogre* behaviour is often not realised by the victim (Zapf & Gross, 2001) until it is too late, or it is internalised and attributed to self-blame until it has escalated well beyond the usefulness of mediation. Mediation may be able to identify what has actually caused a conflict, but like any resolution attempt, it is not effective unless it is used in the correct stage of conflict escalation (Keashly, 2010; Zapf & Gross, 2001), and follow up is required to ensure both parties are feeling supported. Furthermore, mediation also does not recognise or punish previous behaviour and it is designed for use where the parties involved are equal (Ferris, 2004). However, equality certainly is not the case in bullying, and it is likely that mediation with a manager or leader may increase the risk of escalation and retaliation by the bully rather than the intended resolution (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

A second option is performance management, which refers to managing behaviour of staff through appraising their performance at regular intervals. Appraisals should be used to tie the goals of the employee to the strategy of the employer. Performance management is monitoring this process when an employee’s behaviour or practice has become askew with

the strategies of the employer. Although, when used incorrectly, to terminate an employee for example, performance management and appraisals have been argued to be counterproductive, manipulative, and even abusive (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Noe, 2008; van Heugten, 2007). This is particularly pertinent if the *ogre* is the supervisor conducting the appraisal, or if the *ogre* receiving the appraisal is able to manipulate the process.

Performance appraisals are also often only a once per year activity that are rarely followed up until the next year. Therefore, mildly addressing an *ogre* will have little impact if it is known that there will be no more discussion until at least 12 months have passed.

Third, in-house counselling is usually what a victim is offered by a supervisor, or professional treatment via an Employee Assistance Program (EAP) (Noe, 2008). EAP's are an evolving service that were originally developed in the 1950's to treat alcoholism, whereby the employer would support the alcoholic worker to become long-term sober by paying for the rehabilitation program (Noe, 2008). Today EAP's are often linked to overall health and wellbeing programs of the employer and are offered to employees for a variety of reasons; they may include counselling with a psychologist or clinical supervision options (Noe, 2008). The long term effectiveness of EAP's have been questioned in terms of their ability to be better than medical or hospital options (Sonnenberg & McEnerney, 2004), and EAP's are often a solution offered to the victim to recover from the bully or *ogre* experience. It does not address the behaviour of the *ogre*.

Collaborative team work and training is option four. This is a process where the performance of colleagues can be coordinated to achieve a common goal. This is often as a result of group or individual training designed to improve or increase skills, and effectiveness of teams (Noe, 2008). For an anecdotal example from the investigator, a group of teachers in the Faculty of Arts may meet at the commencement of the year and design a 'team rules' document and/or undertake training about communicating with each other as a team.

Training can be valuable for any employee, but there is little or no evidence to suggest it will decrease *ogre* behaviours. Often training is the result of a reaction to an event, rather than a proactive stance designed for prevention. For example, a teacher may feel they are being bullied or are working with a colleague whose personality they clash with. The school may therefore organise compulsory training for all teachers about workplace bullying or personality differences. Some may find it interesting, but it can be contended that it does not address the issue that prompted the training in the first place.

The fifth conflict resolution techniques that has shortfalls is policy review and development. Such processes are often part of a quality improvement or assurance cycle where procedures are developed or reviewed as the result of experiences within the workplace (Edmonds, 2007). Policies to support good relationships within the workplace have names such as Grievance Procedure, Code of Conduct, Staff Development, Human Resource, and Performance Management (Bratton & Gold, 2012). Anecdotal experience from the author of this thesis and other human resource colleagues suggests that these are generally only referred to when there is a concern, and often only updated as the result of an issue, not as a systematic quality improvement review cycle. Similar to training, this option is reactive rather than proactive.

Finally, when all of the internal supports fail, external support through arbitration is the last option. This involves seeking assistance from an ombudsman for arbitration when all other options have been exhausted and the court system makes a binding decision (Cornelius et al., 2006; Keashly, 2010). Additionally, receiving other external mediation from union or industry representatives may result in improved exit packages for the victim, however it may be perceived as a threat to the workplace reputation due to its legal inferences, and results in loss of staff (Zapf & Gross, 2001). For example, the Fair Work Commission (2014) may rule in the favour of a teacher who has been a victim of a bully or *ogre*. This ruling may include

damages payment to the teacher from the school, which may not have been an option without the representation of a union in the court. Other teachers may see the reports in the newspapers, and request a transfer from the school, and others may not apply to work there because they conclude that the school cannot protect its teachers from bullies.

Although, the above techniques are effective to a point, too often *ogre* behaviour is incorrectly considered in terms of the effects on the victim, rather than the intentions of the perpetrator (Grice, Sheehan, McCarthy, Barker, & Henderson, 2003) and the intervention becomes an action for unacceptable behaviour by the victim because it is considered destructive to the team. Consequently, unhelpful internal mediation is the only option given to those who report an *ogre*. This can result in further victimisation as again, the one that complains can often be labelled as a trouble maker and the mediation actually becomes a strategy to deal with a difficult worker (van Heugten, 2010; Zapf & Gross, 2001) or to blame the victim (Ferris, 2004; Kelly, 2006). Therefore, it is evident that, in practice, the vulnerability to the *ogre* behaviour is increased after interactions with management, unions and colleagues fail (Ferris, 2004; Lanza et al., 2010; Lewis & Orford, 2005). As a result, most victims are blamed for the behaviour and are forced to leave the workplace or retire early (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Lewis, 2006; Randle et al., 2007). Leaving the organisation or school, or moving to a different department away from the *ogre* are often the only available realistic options for the victim (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

The sequence of recruitment to replace the victim then commences. It can be contended that it is at this point, during recruitment, where screening for *ogre* behaviours should take place. An *ogre* has the ability to appear valuable during recruitment because they have the ability to manipulate the interviewers (Babiak et al., 2010). For anecdotal examples, to deter from their shortcomings, they may ask many questions about the job (to avoid answering interview questions), they may cite impressive statistics about the school (that they

found on the school's website or by searching Google) to sound knowledgeable, and may even complement the panel members on their dress (to indicate agreeability), for example. They may even be successful in the job for a while, but the destructive side of the *ogre* will eventually be shown (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011).

We may be able to uncover this pattern through stringent checks of documentation, work history, and referees, for example. Rather than solely relying on Grievance Procedures after the employment contract has been signed, and the probation period has concluded. After this time has lapsed the only policy option is the Grievance Procedure, and it fails for the above reasons. Additionally, the standard Grievance Procedure usually suggests firstly approaching the bully, and if that fails, then go to the supervisor. There is no back-up plan if this approach fails or if the *ogre* is the supervisor, and therefore the prospect of a fair outcome in this case is limited or non-existent (Ferris, 2004; Hoel & Beale, 2006). The result? The victim leaves and recruitment commences again.

Towards prevention. Many modern interventions are becoming based on human rights and Work Health and Safety (WHS) laws. In some states in Australia there have been institutional efforts under WHS, anti-discrimination legislation, and employment laws to penalise bullies by holding employers responsible for protecting their employees from harm; including psychological harm. Employers can be liable for not upholding their basic duty of care in this instance and unions have provided some chance of addressing these power imbalance issues that have resulted in *ogre* behaviour (Kelly, 2006).

The state of Victoria for example, introduced the Crimes Amendment (Bullying) Bill 2011 on the 5th April 2011, making bullying illegal (Power, 2011). Since then, the Work, Health & Safety Act has included an entire section on bullying, with support from the Fair Work Ombudsman. Therefore, employees are now able to lodge a dispute with the Fair

Work Commission under work, health and safety grounds, to be protected from bullying.

These efforts have a long way to go, and their success is yet to be determined, but are a worthy path toward preventing bullying and its closely related *ogre* behaviours.

Some researchers encourage the use of multilevel strategies in an attempt to develop a theory that relates to successful intervention strategies (Grice et al., 2003; Saam, 2010). Such strategies acknowledge the individual, group, and the school levels at which *ogre* behaviour takes place and interrelates. Robinson and Bennett (1995) also suggested that the link between deviance, sexual harassment, and discrimination have not been thoroughly researched; and in many cases, it is argued that *ogre* behaviour is included in such concepts (Friedman & Bolte, 2007; Hoel & Beale, 2006). Saam (2010) further argued that interventions can only be effective if they are used as a multilevel approach with consideration given to appropriateness of the intervention at that point in time. For example, consideration needs to be given to the amount of time the victim has been subject to bullying as they may progressively lose faith in the system if they are not supported immediately (Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004).

Grievance Procedures, mediation, coaching and school development continue to be the three tools most commonly used to intervene in *ogre* behaviour (Saam, 2010) in schools. Counselling follows closely behind (Ferris, 2004; MacIntosh, 2005) and the *ogre* may also benefit from coaching if power imbalances exist, if they are a serial bully, or if they have severely traumatised a victim (Ferris, 2004; Lewis, 2006). For example, the *ogre* will spend time being coached by an experienced employee on how best to behave in the workplace in certain situations. However, this method will not be beneficial in cases where the responsible person does not recognise that *ogre* behaviour exists or if there is a delay in that recognition. School development is also unproductive in times where it will destroy the possibility of staff

working together in groups to improve procedures, policy, and non-transparent task distribution.

Therefore interventions continue to fail with school staff on both the interpersonal and school level. This is because the strategies used within schools depend on so many factors, including the person involved in any reconciliation attempt between victim and *ogre*, the size of the school, current Human Resource (HR) practices used, training and knowledge of the staff (Salin, 2009). Even the gender of the individuals is a factor (Zapf & Gross, 2001). For example, there is data indicating that females attribute *ogre* behaviour to characteristics of the perpetrator, whereas males attribute *ogre* behaviour to a personal failure (Hoel et al., 2004).

This is one of the reasons that there is growing recognition that where bullying is concerned, a 'one size does not fit all approach' is being taken. For example, Kaukiainen et al, (2001) found that up to 69% of males are expected to behave in a more aggressive way than females. They indicated that sex differences in aggression can be accounted for through Social Role Theory where there are gender-role expectations justified on the basis of situational differences particularly as it is more acceptable for males to be aggressive than females (Kaukiainen et al., 2001). SCT would support this assumption by outlining that modelling of gender roles has taken place for centuries and has further reinforced male and female specific behaviours. This is evident when research shows that gender is downplayed in the corporate world because it has been claimed that women have to act like men or run the risk of demonstrating they are no longer committed to their workplace (Gazso, 2004). For instance, Curthoys (1988) argued that it is not enough to display gender-appropriate behaviour by wearing a dress, make-up and perfume if you are a female. This is because balancing family with work is not a social script recognised in high-status positions, such as a school Principal.

It is the struggle with this conscious reality that may even contribute to the creation of female *ogres* in management roles. It is made significantly worse when these *ogres* are in feminised professions where it is expected they will be the head of their school, but do business like men. Hence, patriarchal assumptions recognise that women will either need to become like men, leave their job, or become *ogres* to “fit in” (Curthoys, 1988).

In summary, analogous to the actual definition of bullying and *ogre*, there is no ‘one size fits all’ solution or intervention available (Zapf & Gross, 2001) that offers an explanation or treatment for *ogre* behaviour. It has been reasoned that interventions will fail to be effective unless they are developed with the goals and outcomes of the victim in mind (MacIntosh, 2012), and with acknowledgement of contributing factors to *ogre* behaviour. Therefore, when a victim does report, it is likely to be a serious problem (Hoel et al., 2004) and so, these practices ultimately need to acknowledge a vast number of factors, namely, the interactions of power and authority, personality, and perceptions; and most importantly, the ethics of care and social justice (Hurley et al., 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2010) for students and staff.

Proposed framework

The proposed framework is also a multi-level three-factor framework, where the individual and environmental factors are considered as the primary contributors to *ogre* behaviour, and are the factors that demand the most attention when exploring options for the decreasing and preventing *ogre* behaviours; both before and during the appearance of the behaviour.

The argument of personality and environment cannot clearly be separated, as literature suggests that behaviour within schools is a function of specific individuals in specific contexts (Chatman, 1989), which can be a syndrome suffered and displayed occasionally, or an ongoing pathological configuration of a true *ogre*. Described by Ashforth

(1997) as petty tyrants, whereas a “‘Petty tyrant’ is a colloquial term that is often used to describe such managers. It suggests s o m e o n e who uses their power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and perhaps vindictively. It suggests, in short, someone w h o lords their power over others” (p. 126). Therefore, *ogre* behaviour can only be explained as a gestalt, in that a school *ogre* is the coherent cluster of mutually reinforcing situational factors and individual predispositions that facilitates behaviour from leaders that affect those that they are in charge of.

The proposed model in Figure 2.1 suggests that external factors (power and authority) interacting with internal factors (personality and perceptions) are the result of the ‘other’ behaviour. Coupled with SCT, it can be argued that this behaviour will become negative if the individual’s self-assessment of their own behaviour in the environment is inaccurate. Therefore we will see the ‘other’ factor as outlined in Figure 1.1.

Furthermore, we need to consider that people will perform differently depending on their confidence levels. These confidence levels are the result of self-evaluation, and to be successful we must have a strong self-belief in our ability (Bandura, 1988). It is claimed that *ogres* have a higher and inflated self-confidence in comparison to others, and this may be the result of perceived self-efficacy.

What we cannot account for is the different questionnaires and tools used to define and measure *ogre* behaviour. For example, the use of questionnaires can lead to response bias (Hoel et al., 2001) and a myriad of other data needs to be included when attempting to define a school *ogre* (e.g. human resource interventions, current and previous grievance proceedings, peer evaluations etc.) (Kaukiainen et al., 2001). The research indicates a need for a comprehensive tool that has been carefully validated (Einarsen et al., 2009; Kaukiainen et al., 2001).

Therefore, this model and SCT mutually support each other in that behaviour is the result of motivation for power and authority. Further, motivation is impacted upon by perceptions of ability and the capacity to modify personality traits depending on the situation. Those who have had experiences of success will have a stronger self-efficacy, and be highly motivated (Bandura, 1988). Therefore, *ogres* who have successfully and positively achieved their desires through *ogre* behaviours will have higher motivation to continue the behaviours and will self-assess themselves as having the ability to meet all of their goals.

With this knowledge and understanding we are able to apply this framework to behaviour within a school, or to other work environments. This will enable us to conceivably better comprehend, prevent recruitment of, and decrease *ogre* behaviours. Early intervention can be argued as a key factor to this concern, as appropriate and effective recruitment techniques will decrease the possibility of employing *ogres* in the first place. Though this is not a guarantee, as experienced *ogres* have been able to fool even those who are experts in psychopathy (Hare, 1993); though it is a viable option that is being explored here for the first time. Figure 2.2 links the ‘other’ factor to power and authority, personality, and perceptions, with Table 2.2 outlining the resulting table of pertinent research.

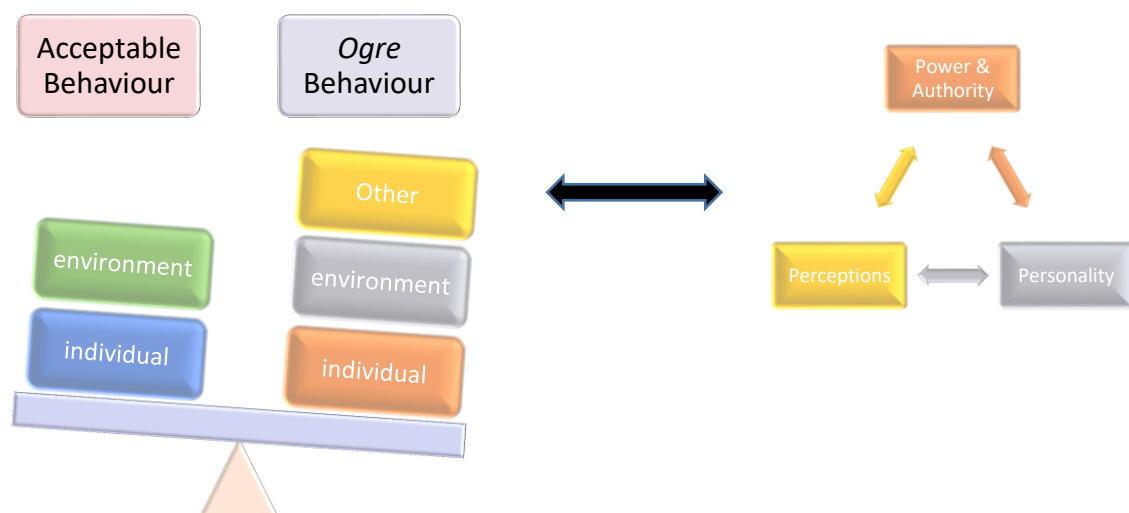


Figure: 2.2. Illustration of the framework that links the factors to the ‘other’.

Table: 2.2

Authors that Link the Factors to the 'other'

Topic	Author	Discipline	Measures	Notions
Bullying	Strandmark et al Hoel	Sociology	Self-reports	Power
Psychopaths	Cleckley Hare	Psychology	Psych testing	Personality
'Others'	Clarke Crawshaw	Business	Interviews	Personality Power
Ogres	This research	Sociology Psychology Business	Content and Leximancer Analysis	Personality Power Perceptions

Research Questions

The following research questions have emerged as a result of the literature review, and are addressed in this thesis:

1. Is there a relationship between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours?
2. To what extent are negative interactions by *ogres* influenced by personality?
3. How do individual perceptions contribute to *ogre* behaviours?
4. Do Grievance Procedures contribute to the reinforcement of *ogre* behaviours?

Discussion and Summary

There are a multitude of ways that behaviour can be looked at. For example, through self-reports we are able to find out about the sociological impact of bullying, with power being the motivator (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis et al., 2008). We can also study psychopaths through psychological testing and gain insights into personalities for the psychology discipline (Cleckley, 1955; Hare, 1993). We can even interview employees to gain an understanding about 'snakes in suits' (Clarke, 2001, 2005) and 'abrasive managers' (Crawshaw, 2007, 2010) to guide us in business interactions where both personality and power can be factors. However, what has not been considered is how we can

research those others that just do not fit into these frameworks. Those that are motivated by power, but have endearing personalities, and exploit others for personal gain (Hare, 1993), and are perceived as *ogres*. This is a study that contributes to business research, psychological research, and sociological research, through a measure that has not yet been tried – Content and Leximancer Analysis.

Of particular importance to this research is that an assortment of studies are available in Norway, Sweden and Britain, though few are specific to Australia, and none that are based in Tasmania. There are also few studies that identify the prevalence of *ogre* behaviour toward staff or colleagues. Much of the research data relates to victim effects, and some studies include professionals in their participants as the victim, though insufficient studies focus on the leader being the *ogre*, or even the bully. Even though there are a number of available Social Work and Nurse Studies, there is limited focus on covert bullying behaviours between general staff members, or those in middle management roles.

If any of the above results are to be comparable in Australia it is essential for policy to be put in place that facilitates the recognition and effective interventions of *ogres* well before they are promoted to higher positions of authority. It is also essential for early interventions to be developed and implemented to decrease the likelihood of such behaviours developing (Baldoni, 2005; Leichting, 2005), rather than dealing with them in a way that is financially ineffective once the individual is entrenched in a career (Clarke, 2005), or in many cases, incarceration through the legal system as a result of their actions.

Aquino (2000) states that by analysing the resulting power from a hierarchical nature we can develop a better understanding of *ogre* behaviour from the level of the victim, the perpetrator and its historical influences. Where the perpetrator is at a high level in the school for example, we also need to understand and research the relationship between victims and the passive behavioural style exhibited by leadership.

Studies are also suggestive of the expectation that *ogres* may exist in all workplaces, including all schools. Rates of such behaviours differ across studies, and a need for further replication studies is called for as these studies are not comparable due to differences in time, locations and groups. There is also an unclear indication in the research of what the conflicting results propose, or if they are generalizable across all schools and workplaces.

In summary, clear commonalities in the research exist, and they all provide a unique focus to the topic of *ogres* within the school. The research that will result from the current inquiry will also contribute to that uniqueness, in addition to contributing to exclusive policy requirements of the Education sector in Tasmania.

Prominent features in the literature review include the definition of *ogre* behaviour that researchers use, the tools and methodologies of the research trade, and perceptions that respondents have of *ogre*. These all have potential to influence the outcome of a study and they are worthy of acknowledgement for considerations for future research.

This would enable direct and simple comparisons between studies (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis et al., 2008). This consideration must be made for any future attempts to develop a global classification of *ogre* behaviours for the purposes of research and remedies. Without a comprehensive definition, there will be little likelihood of developing transparent policies (Randle et al., 2007).

This literature review has explored the factors that contribute to school *ogres* and an explanation was offered as to why current interventions are ineffective. Theoretical underpinnings were also linked to domains that require research in the context of the Tasmanian environment. A number of common themes were identified and discussed, and the chapter concluded with how this research will contribute to future outcomes in terms of a proposed framework for this current inquiry and future research.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Underpinnings

Introduction

This chapter commences with an outline of the research models relevant to this study, and discusses the post-positivist research paradigm used for this inquiry, which is based within a relativist ontology and subjective epistemology. A theoretical perspective highlights the strengths of Social Cognitive Theory as the most suitable theory to accompany Content and Leximancer Analysis in a multi-layered and multi-level archival study (Lee & Peterson, 1997). The chapter concludes with detailed information of how the paradigm, methods and theoretical perspective have been applied to the current study.

Frameworks

There are two models presented in the literature that contribute to the benefits of using Content and Leximancer Analysis. Those models are entrenched within the application of paradigms, and depending on author, paradigms are characterised by ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Guba, 1990); or epistemology, methodology, methods, and theoretical perspective (Crotty, 1998). To best support the use of Content and Leximancer Analysis, a combined frameworks approach from both Crotty (2003) and Guba (1990) has been developed, as illustrated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Research Frameworks

	Crotty (1998)	Guba (1990)	This research
1. Ontology		✓	
2. Epistemology	✓	✓	✓
3. Methods	✓		✓
4. Methodology	✓	✓	✓
5. Theory	✓		✓

Paradigms

To provide a background to the underlying assumptions of Content and Leximancer Analysis into *ogre* behaviours, a paradigmatic stance has been engaged throughout this research. A paradigm is a way of viewing reality through a set of assumptions, models, values, and practices that establishes the way each individual views reality (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). Paradigms guide our actions from within ourselves and for the community that share a similar paradigm, especially in an intellectual discipline like education. Each paradigm has associated methodologies (assumptions about knowledge, values, reality and logic) that are suited to the types of research that is undertaken in the discipline (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Paradigms may also have interdisciplinary preferences. For example, natural, human, and social sciences accept the basic concept of what necessitates a paradigm, though the actual paradigm each science embraces is frequently different. The human and social sciences are inclined to use a post-positivistic paradigm, but the natural sciences prefer to use the positivistic paradigm. However, what does not change across paradigms is the foundations of what paradigm and a methodology constitute (McGregor & Murnane, 2010).

There are several paradigms that are predominant in educational research, many of which could be used to support Content and Leximancer Analysis of archival files. For example, Positivism, Post-positivism, Critical perspective, Constructivism, Interpretive and Realism (Guba, 1990; Mack, 2010; McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Taylor & Medina, 2013) - all would have suited. However, the challenge is determining the borders of post-positivism, as it is not as well defined as positivism.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) defined post positivism as a modern positivism, which is in opposition with the qualitative paradigm. Other authors use the post-positivist term as a catch-all label for all research paradigms which are not strictly positivistic (Niglas, 2001).

For the purpose of this research, I have separated between the positivist (scientific and quantitative) paradigm and post-positivist (all non-scientific and qualitative) paradigms. These are now discussed in the context of Leximancer and Content Analysis.

Positivist research. Positivist research uses the scientific method. The scientific method postulates that human beings are seen as objects that can be controlled and should be studied through meticulous hypothesis testing measures, and that science is isolated from human beings. The majority of positivist research takes place in an artificial laboratory setting that is very different to the ordinary world of natural experiences and life. The positivist paradigm expects the researcher and the participant to remain neutral through the research (Guba, 1990; McGregor & Murnane, 2010).

Furthermore, ontology is about the nature of reality and the nature of what is knowable (Guba, 1990). Ontology deals with questions concerning what entities exist or can be said to exist, and how such entities can be grouped, related within a hierarchy, and subdivided according to similarities and differences. The form of nature and its reality is the question and what can be known about it (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Only answers based on fact are relevant and not assumptions. Ultimately, ontology is how we view social reality.

When considering a positivist ontology, it is assumed that a conscious reality exists and the generalisations of culture, gender and age are time and context free (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). For example, Naïve Realism is a positivist ontology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) because it maintains that the world is external to the researcher, and the research and researcher are independent of each other (Veal, 2005). Due to this very reason, a positivist approach does not suit Content or Leximancer Analysis as both analysis types assumes an interaction between the researcher and the researched.

Post-positivist research. The post-positivistic research paradigm is where the Content and Leximancer Analysis is best placed. Post-positivists contend that there are countless ways of knowing separate to the scientific method, and that research should not happen in experimental settings, but should take place in natural environments. Examples of these paradigms in educational research include Critical Perspective, Constructivism, Interpretivism and Realism (Guba, 1990; Mack, 2010; McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Taylor & Medina, 2013). These paradigms do not test hypotheses like positivists do. Research hypotheses are generated through inductive reasoning. For example, conducting a pilot study to ascertain what information is available, before hypotheses are developed. Therefore, research intent is to find meanings and/or influence in explicit social and cultural situations rather than applying general rules to everything and everyone. Furthermore, rather than aiming to explain the operation of something, post-positivists attempt to: (a) increase understanding by interpreting why something or people function in the way that they do, or (b) to reveal relationships of power and structures (Taylor & Medina, 2013). This cannot be possible if the researcher and participant is required to stay neutral (McGregor & Murnane, 2010); but can be obtained by exploring content in documents where there have been interactions between people and structures, such as a workplace, and allows researcher bias to be objectively considered.

The post-positivistic paradigm accepts that research does not need to be value-free, objective and unbiased to be valid. It can actually be value-laden and subjective because the voice and role of the researcher and participants should be included in the study (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). For example, in a Content and Leximancer research process the voice of the participants would be heard through the informed interpretations of the researcher. Therefore, post-positivists believe that humans can benefit from the research and even initiate it because of their direct participation in the study as they are central to the research process,

rather than being controlled or isolated from it (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). Consequently, this study was inspired by the researchers workplace experience, and any bias has been objectively utilised.

The concept of validity in post-positivistic research relies on the reader of the research being able to trust the research by being able to answer the question “Why should I believe this?” Vital to the answer is maintenance of clear records of how the research was conducted, including reasons for choice of methodology and theoretical underpinnings, data collection details, and frameworks used to develop the study and/or interpret results. The study can be trusted in the post-positivistic research framework if the reader of the research is able to examine the events, influences and actions of the researcher, whereby they are able to account for how his or her perception was considered. The question regarding believability of the study can be answered by the result of the examiner (McGregor & Murnane, 2010).

Therefore, rigour in positivism is tested by validity and reliability, while those who favour the post-positivistic paradigm endeavour to reach for a criteria of trust rather than an unbiased criteria. Post-positivists aim for credibility (rather than internal validity), transferability (rather than external validity), dependability (rather than reliability) and confirmability (rather than objectivity) (McGregor & Murnane, 2010); all of which can be provided by Content and Leximancer Analysis.

Constructivism. Constructivism is the post-positivist paradigm that best underpins Content and Leximancer Analysis because Content and Leximancer Analysis is able explore consequences of behaviour. Constructivism suggests that the knowledge human beings possess has consequences for how behaviour is interpreted (Magoon, 1977). Constructivism maintains that truth about reality is socially negotiated and that the true meaning of knowledge is then constructed internally (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). This is a subjective

epistemology that is relativist (ontology). Abercrombie, Hill, and Turner (1988) stated that theories that have an underpinning about what kind of entities can exist are ontological assumptions. Reality can never be fully apprehended even though it does exist. Natural laws cannot be completely understood but they drive reality. For example, constructivism is evident in the ontological assumptions of this research as the author assumes that *ogre* behaviours often result in negative consequences. Those consequences are grouped into incidents in this research, and divided into the categories of type, duration, level of seriousness, and outcome. This research assumes that the entities of bullying, power, perceptions and personality exist, and the definitions about these terms (see chapter 1), and similar terms, are socially constructed.

The ontological focus of post-positivist constructivism is critical realism. Objective reality can be assigned but not perfectly (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Knowledge can only be constructed if individuals construct it. For example, the knowledge of *ogre* behaviour must be constructed. However, knowledge is subjective because each individual constructs knowledge in their own unique way, depending on their social background. Thus, the foundations of the subjectivist approach can be found in relativism (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Guba (1990) further stated that the constructivist ontology is relativist in that its perceptions of reality are: (a) in the form of a number of mental constructions, (b) based on social and experimental realities, (c) is specific and local in its assumptions, and (d) dependent on the content and form in which a person holds them. This supports the assumption that the reality of *ogre* behaviours can be subjective, depending on the reality of the person observing the behaviour.

Therefore, in terms of this research, reality it is based on 4 premises. Firstly, the mental construction that each individual holds of *ogres*. For example, the readers perception of *ogre* may be different to the *ogre* perceived by the author, and the research participants. Second,

the majority of people in the same community may (or may not) always agree that the behaviour is *ogre* behaviour. Third, the definition may not always apply to the wider environment, because what a school sees as *ogre* behaviour may be accepted behaviour in another workplace (e.g., in a highly competitive environment). Fourth, (d) it will depend on the situational context. For example, does *ogre* behaviour always include manipulation of others, or only in certain situations, or with the addition of other perceived unsavoury behaviours?

Therefore, as Guba and Lincoln (1994) stated, relativist constructivist ontology is reality based; based on experimentation and social constructions that may be altered. The content and form of reality may differ from person to person and there is only information and not necessarily fact. Depending on the situation, there can be multiple interpretations, truths, and realities (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

Epistemology

Understanding the Content Analysis method can be further increased with knowledge of its underpinning epistemology because it gives us a better view into the process of knowledge acquisition. To clarify, epistemology in the sociological sense is “the methods of scientific procedures which lead to the acquisition of sociological knowledge” (Abercrombie et al., 1994). It is how we come to know social reality. Hence, the epistemology of Content Analysis in this research is to assist us to understand the social reality of *ogre* behaviours. Furthermore, epistemology in education research literature aims to address the following questions: 1. what is the knowledge of topic being researched? 2. How is this knowledge acquired? and, 3. What do people already know about the topic being researched and, 4. how do we know this? Additionally, epistemology is the nature of the relationship between the researcher (inquirer) and what is known or may be discovered (Guba, 1990). Findings are

created due to the link between the investigator and the outcomes of the inquiry (Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The literature relating to the current inquiry is therefore concerned with the nature and scope (limitations) of knowledge relating to questions about the relationship between the person who has the knowledge about the current inquiry, and what they could know. The epistemological stance is restrained by the result of the ontological question (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Fortunately, however, it can be argued that the epistemology of the majority of literature consulted for this research suggests that there is a universal assumption relating to human behaviour; and in that behaviour is a supposition that we understand how each other has acquired knowledge regarding the way we define things; such as grievances in the workplace, for example. It is assumed that people know something about grievances and some researchers also consider grievances can be generalised across cultures. The epistemology of this research focuses on how the author can communicate the consequences of grievances, and that we already know a great deal about grievances through previous research.

However, we need to obtain more information about workplace grievances as a result of *ogre* behaviour, and the ontological question and epistemology stance require a common ground. For example, a positivist epistemology is dualist and objectivist in that the researcher may want to determine the reality and workings of entities (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The positivist epistemology of much research assumes that the individual is independent of the grievances being studied and is not influenced by it nor influences it (Österman et al., 1998).

The constructivist epistemology, though, is subjectivist in that the researcher and those being studied are connected and the results of the study are the product of the relationship between the researcher and the researched (Guba, 1990). The constructivist

epistemology assumes interaction between the researcher and the researched (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), as with Content and Leximancer Analysis.

Theoretical Perspectives

A theoretical perspective is “the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus provid[es] a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria” (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). A multitude of theories are able to contribute to the research of *ogres* in the workplace in some way. This section of the chapter compares and contrasts Feminism and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) as two theories that may have underlying foundations within research on *ogres*.

Feminist contributions. In recent years, the feminist perspective has dramatically emerged into a distinctive field, and is now firmly present as an academic discipline (Alcoff & Kittay, 2007). It is a political perspective aimed at changing the relationships of power between men and women and it is all-encompassing of race, class, ethnicity, and culture.

Feminist leaders are driven by values of honesty, social justice, collaboration, and relationships (Caldwell-Colbet & Albino, 2007); and these types of leaders are ideal for a school environment, regardless of location, as such values are often reflected in the missions and strategies of schools. However, research indicates that these leaders also have the ability to be extreme in asserting these values. When they are faced with someone who does not share these values or if they are confronted with a patriarchal environment, then they can become a workplace *ogre*.

The study of feminism in relation to *ogre* behaviour can have significant implications on power/authority studies and gender studies, however the current inquiry borrows from a range of psychological and sociological perspectives in an attempt to uncover and define the process for uncovering school *ogres*. Consequently, feminism may be able to explain the link

between behaviour and power and authority, but how then are we able to explain the interactions across all three domains of power and authority, perceptions, and personality? For example, feminism is able to explain power and authority as a sociological perspective, but not personality or our perceptions of events. Feminists argue that women in feminised professions both experience and exercise oppression through lateral and hierarchical bullying. This is the same for men working in feminised fields (Daiki & Richards, 2007). Feminists would assert that men and women have bought this on themselves through the historical desire of men to dominate and the conscious knowledge of women in this social monopoly. Even though women cannot be fully blamed for their role in this, they are not entirely ignorant to the patriarchal assumptions of history (Garrison, 1972). This is a good reason to assume that women are very aware of their behaviour in the workplace; however, their choice to recognise it may be selective.

Power and conflict based interpretations of bullying in the workplace have been criticised for being singular interpretations of power which are not analysed deeper within the dynamics of the organisation (Hurley et al., 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2010). This can also be explained by feminist perspectives as they look further into the social aspects, rather than individual concerns; though they still do not fully explain personality development through the social aspects. Radical feminists would suggest that female bullying behaviour is an attempt for women to exert their masculine side in a world where they are expected to oppress it. Similarly, men are expected to hide their feminist side (Hamilton, 1978) and this results in work devaluation being experienced unevenly across professions. An explanation as to why this unstable power differentiation exists needs to be further developed (Daiki & Richards, 2007) in terms of individual perceptions. Radical feminists, however, would see it explained by the repression of the masculinity required by females (Hamilton, 1978).

SCT on the other hand, is able to explain the unstable power differentiations, personality, and perceptions (Bandura, 1986). Feminism can provide some valuable insight into the power relations (Curthoys, 1988), though SCT is by far the best explanation to the undesirable behaviour and bullying tactics that are under observation for this inquiry. SCT meticulously explains and contributes to resolutions on all levels of covert bullying that epitomises school *ogres* in the Tasmanian secondary education system (Bandura, 1988). Other theories may be able to explain some domains but it can be argued that only SCT can explain all domains in this inquiry.

Moreover, to maintain the post-positivist perspective, SCT specifies that thought has its origins in social interactions, and that there are mechanisms through which social factors exert their influence on cognitive functioning (Bandura, 1986). Continuing with a combined Guba/Crotty framework, this research has borrowed from Crotty (1998) and utilised a theory to strengthen the research. SCT has been used because of its constructivist stance.

Social Cognitive Theory introduction. SCT has the ability to underpin *ogre* behaviour because it is a philosophy that can explain behaviour based on self-regulation. Albert Bandura is the leading SCT theorist and he maintains that we motivate ourselves based on what we can do, or what we think we can do or achieve. We arrive at this realisation, and consequent behaviours as a result of the interactions between external forces. These forces may include the power relationships in our environment, and internal forces, such as forethought, perceptions and personality. Therefore, external influences and our internal self-regulation are the product of our purposeful actions.

In SCT, people function as contributors to their own motivation, behaviour, and development within a system of mutually interacting influences. People are not driven by global traits, and they are not spontaneously formed and controlled by the environment (Bandura, 1988). SCT has a constructivist position as it states that people are willing

participants in their own lives, and are not the victims of external forces. Humans are the result of their own experiences, and they are not simply someone that undergoes an experience (Bandura, 1999). This assumption also aligns with the constructivism paradigm that postulates that we construct knowledge internally after socially constructing it through experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

People are considered within SCT in terms of five essential capabilities: symbolising capability, vicarious capability, forethought capability, self-regulatory capability, and self-reflective capability (Bandura, 1999). Firstly, the symbolising capability refers to our ability to characterise events and their relationships in symbolic form, so that humans have an instrument for understanding their environment. This is also an instrument for creating and managing environmental conditions that are characteristic of everyday life. Symbols serve as the vehicle of thought so that people can cognitively problem solve momentary thoughts or experiences, rather than rely on actions and possibly suffer negative consequences when things go awry. People are able to generate and test, retain or disregard, possible solutions in their thought before dealing with behavioural consequences (Bandura, 1999). For example, we may know that we need to attend work to be able to pay any debts we have because our employment symbolises money and lifestyle. So before we quit our job, we are able to consider how we may pay our debts – before we resign and the income from our job ceases.

Secondly, vicarious capability refers to our ability to rapidly expand skills and knowledge through social modelling. All directly experienced behavioural, affective and cognitive learning can be acquired vicariously through observing the actions and consequences of behaviour from a rich variety of models on the immediate environment (Bandura, 1986, 1999). For example, by watching the behaviour of others in the workplace we will become to understand the organisational culture and behave accordingly.

Third is forethought capability. Bandura (1999) declared that foresight behaviour depends on our “ability to bring anticipated outcomes to bear on current activities” (p, 173). For example, most people have the foresight to envisage that if they swear at their boss during a disagreement the consequence may be loss of their job, even if the desire to verbally abuse him or her is overwhelming. Therefore, we are able to regulate and contour the present to fit a future that we desire. Forethought provides direction, consistency, and significance to a person’s life. Possible future events can become current behavioural regulators and motivators, if we are able to cognitively symbolize them in the present. This is a form of anticipatory self-guidance that motivates and directs our behaviour based on anticipated outcomes, rather than being pulled by an unrealized future state (Bandura, 1999).

Fourth is self-regulatory capability. Sanctions and demands on ourselves serve as guides, motivators, and deterrents once we develop the capability for self-direction. Bandura (1999) asserted that we must develop the ability to internally direct and regulate ourselves, rather than be pulled in every direction possible when we are presented with an external sanction or demand. The ability to self-regulate relies on being able to monitor our own motivation, affect, and action (Bandura, 1999). For example, a teacher may aspire to be a Principal, but is aware that other more experienced colleagues would be considered for the role first; but these colleagues may not necessarily perform their current role to a high standard. Being able to self-regulate will determine whether the aspiring teacher performs his or her required duties over and above what is required, or attempt to discredit his or her colleagues when the opportunities present themselves, for example.

Finally, a self-reflective capability is the ability reflect upon the adequacy of ones actions and thoughts. To function effectively, people need a way to evaluate the difference between accurate and defective thinking. For example, if we were to tell an inappropriate joke in a staff meeting, we would be able to reflect on our behaviour as not suitable for the

situation. So humans have developed the ability to examine themselves in terms of cognitive, affective, and behavioural functioning, and are not just agents of action. By having the skill to verify the adequacy of thought, through self-reflection, humans can predict outcomes of behaviour as quickly as they are able to generate an idea. Depending on the results, humans are then able to judge if their thinking is accurate and holds functional value, or if necessary attempt to improve it. To be efficient at this we need to be able to cognitively process accurate thoughts that match reality indicators, and be accurate in our perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1999).

SCT not only supports the methodology of this research, but is also able to significantly enhance the methods chosen for this research. In particular, it has been argued that Content Analysis is best guided by theory (Kohlbacher, 2006). Consequently, SCT can support the strengths, validity and reliability of Content Analysis, in addition to reducing the limitations of the method. SCT supports the validity of Content Analysis through its assumption that much of human behaviour can be predicted by forethought (Bandura, 1986), and it is relative in its assumption that the way we interpret that behaviour holds consequences (Magoon, 1977). Therefore, if predictions can be reasonably made from the archival material, and behaviour can be reasonably predicted by self-regulatory mechanisms, then analysis of documented behaviours in a case study would support predictive validity. Should a second person interpret the results similarly, through a post-positivist lens of SCT, then construct validity and reliability would also be present (Kohlbacher, 2006).

The strengths of Content Analysis are also supported by SCT through its ability to also explain multifaceted social phenomena. By taking on the assumptions of SCT, a researcher has the ability to screen behaviours from complex documented situations, into data that correlates with what is understood about human behaviour through SCT. Therefore, removing the possibility of incorrect inferences, and providing a contribution to current

theory. Furthermore, SCT can provide answers to the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions that the Content Analysis researcher is always asking. This allows for integration of the covert and overt behaviours into the context of the process that is being considered by Content Analysis (Cassell & Symon, 1994).

Finally, SCT supports the unobtrusiveness of Content Analysis (Weber, 1990), as it can assist in uncovering behaviours without the need for requiring lengthy consultations that may still lack the detail required for the investigation or include information that may not be relevant; which in itself could pose reliability and validity problems. By analysing content from a social cognitive perspective, the researcher can obtain the material that they require in a speedy manner without the need for further lengthy investigations.

As a result of the above, the limitations of Content Analysis are decreased by the use of a supportive theory (Kohlbacher, 2006). Arguably, for the purpose of this study, SCT is the most suitable perspective. Using SCT can assist with analysis and explanations for behaviours, save time, which is already limited, and assist with refining the research questions. Consequently, it may be argued that it is the most effective theory to be used with this current inquiry.

Social Cognitive Theory and *ogre* behaviour. SCT helps explain *ogre* behaviour because it identifies that we compare ourselves to others, and that our behaviour is the product of self-regulation during that comparison process (Bandura, 1991). This is based on our perceptions of the other people’s behaviours. To be able to regulate our behaviour we must have the capability to monitor our experiences, and the contexts in which they occur. SCT would argue that *ogres* do not appropriately meet these capabilities (as outlined above).

Symbolising capability with *ogres* may look very different to others ability to symbolise. SCT states that specific objects, thoughts, or ideas are represented by words that serve as symbols. Being able to understand and use these symbols permits people to store,

process, and convert observed experiences into cognitive illustrations that guide them in future decision making and actions; though SCT would argue that *ogres* may have developed alternative meanings to words and symbols (Bandura, 1986). For example, in a school it is typical for administration staff to report to the Business Manager. Therefore, the words ‘business manager’ would symbolise authority for the administration staff. Alternatively, teachers may be responsible to the Deputy Principal, and would symbolise the words ‘Deputy Principal’ as authority. However, an *ogre* receptionist or teacher for example, may only symbolise authority in the role of Principal, and refuse to accept direction from the Business Manager or Deputy Principal. This may result in *ogre* behaviours when the business manager or deputy Principal attempts to manage the receptionist, or teacher.

Secondly, vicarious capability is the ability to learn through indirect experience. This proposes that behaviour is learned through modelling, and particularly in a world where mass-media has the potential to make a positive or negative impact on development (Bradea & Blandul, 2015). As an example of a positive impact in relation to vicarious capacity is when a young teacher is capable of learning multiple pro-social behaviours by simply reading or watching a television program about positive schooling experiences presenting these pro-social behaviours. Conversely, by observing antisocial behaviours in a school environment, the young teacher may acquire these behaviours, when they might not otherwise have been exposed to them. In the case of an *ogre*, the latter would be most likely.

Third, forethought capability appears to be lacking with *ogres* because the consequences for their actions seem to be rarely considered. Adults are able to extract behavioural rules from outcome details at a varying rate, although SCT would argue that *ogre* behaviour is the result of being inept at extracting those rules, and the rules are therefore not considered at all (Bandura, 1986). For example, an *ogre* teacher may continually leave his or her class unattended and has been reprimanded by the Principal for doing so. However, the

teacher continues to leave the class unattended with what seems to be little, or no consideration to the consequences.

Fourth, *ogres* appear to have little self-regulatory capability. In SCT this includes the motivation and evaluation concepts. People have the ability to motivate themselves to achieve their desired goals, and tend to evaluate their own behaviour and respond accordingly in the process of this goal attainment. This shows the capacity to self-direct and self-regulate behaviour. However, *ogres* tend to be pulled in every direction possible when they are presented an external sanction or demand, until they are able to achieve their desired goal in the quickest possible timeframe (Hare, 1993). For example, if needing to speak to someone who was in an important meeting, rather than wait for a meeting to end, an *ogre* would simply interrupt the meeting with a smile on their face and a shallow apology for interrupting.

Finally, in terms of self-reflective capability, SCT would argue that *ogres* are unable to self-reflect as well as others (Bandura, 1986). Returning to the meeting scenario, an *ogre* would not be able to reflect on their interrupting behaviour as inappropriate. They may be aware that it is not socially preferred behaviour, but would not consider it inappropriate. Through self-reflecting by analysing our internal thoughts and feelings in certain contexts, we are able to notice recurrent patterns, and be able to anticipate our behaviour in similar situations; and alter our behaviour, or self-regulate, where we are able to. Therefore, we are able to set goals and evaluate our progress toward these goals if our perceptions of ourselves are accurate; and alter our behaviour accordingly. *Ogres* may not have that ability, and hence find themselves in situations that cause others distress, e.g., continually interrupting, or being late to meetings.

Social Cognitive Theory and the research questions. So how does SCT apply to power and authority, personality and perceptions? A great deal can be drawn from

psychopathy and bullying research by drawing together its links with SCT and its contributors: power and authority, personality, and perceptions. The literature below outlines how SCT can provide an explanation to these contributors, as the focus of this research.

SCT and power and authority. Research question 1 asks: is there a correlation between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours?

SCT can assist us in answering this because we know that *ogres* desire to be superior in their chosen line of work (Hare, 1993), and SCT can explain that we cognitively process and evaluate our own power depending on internal values and self-reactive influences (Bandura, 1999). SCT states that we also call upon our ability to ignore aspects of these influences, depending on the situation, our personal and social standards, and the mood we are experiencing at the time. Therefore, it can be suggested that *ogres* feel they are deserving of power, or believe they have a greater degree of power within the workplace and ignore the external influences, and inaccurately self-assess themselves as placed above their equal colleagues in the organisational hierarchy. As *ogres* are motivated by power and authority, their own outward behaviour is cognitively processed as appropriate. This behaviour is such that others would cognitively process it as not appropriate, but for the *ogre* it is a means to an end that is rarely challenged by the symbols of authority.

SCT would underpin the argument of a connection between *ogre* behaviour and a need for power in terms of behaviour, and the reinforcement of *ogre* behaviours through unchallenged recurrent behaviours. Powerlessness of victims has been used as an example that may enable *ogre* behaviour (Roscigno et al., 2009); however, the bully, or *ogre*, who works in an environment where boundaries are not defined, has the leverage to step beyond the boundaries to assume power. For example, if the position description states that the Deputy Principal is required to ‘implement curriculum changes’, they may not consider that

this should be in consultation with those delivering the curriculum. As a result, the position description justifies the behaviour of the Deputy Principal, and the Principal assumes the complaints from others are the consequence of personality clashes. This effectively mutes any complaints from the teachers, and a possible Deputy Principal *ogre* will be able to take the credit for implementing changes. Therefore, each time an *ogre* is not questioned about their behaviours, they are able to evaluate themselves as exhibiting acceptable behaviour, which serves as the ultimate illusion of power and status, as any *ogre* behaviour present will be strengthened by lack of boundaries (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007). Positive self-analysis, and a perception of increased power will be the consequence.

Furthermore, when suggesting that *ogres* seek to be superior, they are also using their ability to exploit situations to suit themselves (Hare, 1993). SCT would explain this in terms of those who are not committed to social standards. These people are able to skilfully read social signals and adapt their behaviour to fit the situation. They are able to vary their presentation because they remember the social cues that have predictive value (Bandura, 1991). This is compounded even more by the ability of the *ogre* to use impression management to gain the support of the decision makers (i.e. Principals). Those decision makers are on the top of the hierarchy, and form the protection for the *ogre* when others question the behaviour (Hare, 1993). Conversely, those who are strongly concerned with satisfying their standards demonstrate a high level of self-directedness and have a firm sense of identity. It may be argued that those people are not ones that regularly project traits associated with *ogres*.

SCT and personality. Research Question 2 asks: to what extent are negative interactions between individuals within the workplace influenced by personality?

SCT would propose that personality must play at least some part in the behaviour of the *ogres* because our personality is developed through a lifetime of cognitive processing as

the result of self-assessments and subsequent beliefs of self-efficacy, and self-regulations (Bandura, 1986).

As our personality has input into our behavioural responses, SCT would argue that our external behaviour depends on the way we have self-analysed ourselves in situations where the input from those sources were similar (Bandura, 1991). Therefore, if *ogre* behaviour has been the result, then it will likely be the same in another identical or similar situation especially if the previous behaviour was rewarded and self-assessed as acceptable behaviour in the circumstance.

This indicates that through interactions with the environment we develop personality traits that may or may not be included in *ogre* behavioural traits. This was also inferred when Sinclair (2005) stated that she needed to change to fit in. For example, when we start a job we take our personality to the workplace but if the other personalities already in that environment are very different from our own, we may feel like we need to change. If we are unable to change, there may be a possibility of *ogre* behaviour developing or becoming apparent.

This understanding has been applied to the current study because the document analysis considers that personality is long internalised and is the result of external factors.

SCT and perceptions. Research question 3 asks: How do individual's perceptions of the interpretation of industrial law contribute to *ogre* behaviour?

The below suggests that interpretations of documents mandating employee expectations are also open to interpretation, and possible increased *ogre* behaviours.

Victims have been found to cognitively process their evaluations of other peoples' behaviour based on increased psychological and emotional disturbances (Kokkinos, Panagopoulou, Tsolakidou & Tzeliou, 2015). As a result, SCT can be applied to both the victim and the perpetrators perceptions of *ogre* behaviour. The victim is able to self-assess

themselves as being a target of an *ogre* each time they are on the receiving end of a potential negative interaction from the same person. Conversely, they may interpret that similar behaviour from any person as comparable, and therefore consider themselves as a victim of *ogre* behaviour from more than one individual.

In a school, this may look a little like the following example. ‘Mary’ is the personal assistant to the Deputy Principal and also assists the Principal where required. On one particular occasion the Deputy Principal may have excluded her from a meeting, and Mary feels that she should have been included. The Deputy Principal also assigns her a heavy work load in the same week. Mary perceives that she is being bullied by the Deputy Principal because she has experienced two situations that she perceives as bullying. In the following month the Principal also assigns Mary some extra tasks, and her reaction to the extra workload was the same as her reaction to the heavy work load the Deputy Principal assigned to her in the previous month. As a result, Mary perceives that the Principal is also bullying her. This may not be the case, but SCT would explain that Mary has cognitively processed her reaction in a way that she perceives as bullying, and her own self-regulatory system affirms her response, reaction, and perception.

This could very well be a similar case in the interpretation of industrial regulations concerning the workplace. For example, if the Principal interpreted the workplace industrial award differently to how an *ogre* interpreted it, then the *ogre* may increase their negative behaviours. Should the *ogre* become aware that the Principal was incorrect they may cognitively process that the Principal is always incorrect about the law, and therefore the *ogre* continues their difficult behaviour because they have cognitively processed that the Principal cannot interpret their rights from the legal documents.

Fortunately, the present study is able to remove the possible perceptual errors of the victims and rely strictly on documented accounts of behaviours from personnel files. By

applying SCT to factual documented case study information, the researcher is able to allow for perceptual errors and objectively analyse the data.

Joining theory with methodology

Using historical records to assist in the development of future human resource procedures, both within an educational context, and in other workplaces is both necessary and important. Not only are we required by law to maintain human resource files, but history can illustrate how the workplace has advanced over time, and assist us in predicting how the continuing advancement will shape our future. By understanding history, we may be able to intervene in current advancements to improve future outcomes.

A review of archival files, requires a comprehensive understanding of conceptualizing what information is in the files and what lens is required to investigate, examine and capture the information therein. To this end, examining information in archival files requires an objective analysis informed by inquiry based process. Given that archival files are likely to contain a multitude of information from behaviour of employees, to biographical detail, to historical accounts of recruitment, a qualitative and quantitative evaluation is required. Consequently, Content and Leximancer Analysis are two methods that are able to confidently provide clear and accurate data for the use in future advancements.

Summary

The first section of this chapter commenced with an outline of the models that could have been used to research *ogre* behaviour, and discussed the positivist research paradigm used for this study, which is based within a relativist ontology and subjective epistemology. The strengths of Social Cognitive Theory was highlighted as the most suitable theory to accompany Content and Leximancer Analysis in a multi-layered and multi-level archival

study (Lee & Peterson, 1997). This chapter concluded with detailed information on how the paradigm, methods and theoretical perspective have been applied to the current study, and how they can be linked with the methodology of this research. The focus will now turn to the methodology that has been derived from the above underpinning theoretical stance.

Chapter 4: Methodology

Introduction

This chapter outlines how this qualitative study was conducted in a unique context, utilizing methods for analysing documents that related to the case of one school. The chapter discusses the methods and design of this research, and highlights the strengths of Content and Leximancer Analysis. It is argued and justified that used together with a case study technique, and supported by Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) they have the ability to combine quantitative analysis of content with a qualitatively oriented approach, and contribute to enhancing rigor, validity and reliability of case study research.

Case Study

Creswell (2007) defined a case study as “...the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e., a setting, a context)” (p. 73). For example, multiple personnel files can be explored to gain data about recorded grievances. A case study methodology has been promoted for use in educational research (Merriam, 1998) because it allows the researcher to explore multiple sources to gain in depth data (Creswell, 2007), and can also be used within a qualitative or quantitative approach (Yin, 2003b). Some authors (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Yin, 2003b) prefer to consider case study research as a technique or strategy to conduct qualitative research. However, for this study, a case study design has been used as a technique to explore a number of cases (archival files) within a bounded system (school) of a single school.

Creswell (2007) highlighted the importance of following a procedure when conducting a case study. The first step was determining if a case study was the correct method, and for this research, a case study was decided as the most appropriate method as it

supported the post-positivist paradigm. In this research, a case study has allowed the researcher to take a subjectivist approach by focussing on the topic of workplace grievances where *ogre* behaviours may be presenting.

The second step involved identifying the case (or cases) that will be used (Creswell, 2007). For this study a school was chosen to be the representative case because the author of this thesis was working in a school at the time and permission was provided from the school Principal to access the data. Furthermore, the author hoped to later compare the data to a different employment environment, for example, the health and community services sector.

Thirdly, a decision needed to be made regarding the data that would be gathered from the extensive sources that may have been available (Creswell, 2007). For the purpose of this research, it was decided that as much data as possible would be obtained from archived personnel files regarding recorded grievances. The school made this data available to the author when required and without restrictions. Furthermore, the Grievance Procedure of the school was analysed to enable the researcher to gain further insight into the current procedures used to resolve grievances.

Step four required a decision relating to whether themes would be analysed, or if generalisations would be made from the data available (Creswell, 2007). This research has analysed themes obtained from the data, but schools of similar demographics may also be able to consider the results. This would allow for some limited generalisation across similar environments though the focus of this research is on themes.

The final step was to determine how the results would be interpreted and presented (Creswell, 2007). This research used Content and Leximancer Analysis methods to assist in the interpretation of the results, and has presented the analysis in this thesis, through the lens of Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986).

Method

Content and Leximancer Analysis were the methods used in this research. They were used to analyse results where the emphasis was to determine meaning from recorded or written content. They were also used to assist with coding of the data obtained from the content (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Johnson & Lamontagne, 1993); for example, to gain meaning from archived personnel files, and code the data to assist in understanding events.

However, while Leximancer Analysis is also used in qualitative research, it is generally used to clarify how a certain theme aligns to information in a document, for example, a policy document on school grievances or work place bullying (Cretchley, Rooney, & Gallois, 2010; Grech, Horberry, & Smith, 2002; Watson, Smith, & Watter, 2005). Leximancer Analysis is also used when multi-level concepts and procedures are under investigation and when there is a requirement for quick identification of underlying themes and concepts in documents that may be missed or overlooked in the process of Content Analysis. Therefore, Leximancer Analysis complements and strengthens Content Analysis.

Furthermore, qualitative research generally uses Content Analysis to develop opinions based on information contained in data collections, and Leximancer Analysis is used to automatically classify recurring ideas across recordings or documents, but to date there have been no published studies that have used both forms of analysis to complement multi-level concepts (e.g. bullying at work through an SCT lens) alongside procedural directives (e.g. Grievance Procedures). Using Content Analysis together with Leximancer Analysis to study multi-level concepts (e.g. formal school grievances) contributes to capturing the many voices found in the analysis and adds value and meaning to the texts. This is a dynamic process that is required to understand the many themes hidden in the text.

To date, Content and Leximancer Analysis have not been used together to explore workplace policies and staff relationships; and grievances within a school have not been the

focus for critical exploration and investigation of common concerns and themes among formal complaints. For the purpose of this research, Content Analysis is used to investigate common concerns and themes within recorded complaints and Leximancer Analysis is used to clarify the link between procedural requirements and mandatory outcomes of grievances in the workplace.

Content Analysis. There is currently no consistent understanding of Content Analysis as an empirical technique for social investigations, even though it is a relatively young, but time-honoured method (Kohlbacher, 2006). Therefore, an attempt at defining Content Analysis for the purpose of this research is offered.

According to Babbie (2014), Content Analysis can be defined as "the study of recorded human communications" (p. 304). It is a technique for systematically compressing bulk words of text and large volumes of data into coded categories in an attempt to identify and quantify themes, concepts, ideas, and patterns in the data over time or within specific groups (Krippendorff, 2004; Stemler, 2001). It is an operation of coding, where the coding is a procedure that transforms the raw data into a consistent form (Babbie, 2014).

The coding behind Content Analysis is the foundation of the methodology as it requires that the researcher make judgements about meaning of connected information that has been formed in what may be considered chunks of information. The coding is determined before the material is analysed, and it is the technique that is applied to reduce the material into a matrix. That matrix can then be analysed and the results used to test hypotheses (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Consequently, Content Analysis can be a useful technique for allowing researchers to uncover and describe social attention, or explain the focus of research in terms of individual, group, or institution (Weber, 1990). Further, content analysis can be replicated and may be used for examination of books, newspapers,

manuscripts, files, transcripts, newspaper, and websites. It is often utilised as a methodology when other techniques would be intrusive or costly when attempting to understand symbolic data (Krippendorff, 2004). Therefore, it also allows the researcher to make inferences which can then be confirmed by other data collection methods (Stemler, 2001), for example, Leximancer Analysis.

Content Analysis is theory-guided analysis where the researcher is comparing the results inferred from the data with theory on a continual basis (Kohlbacher, 2006). A researcher is able to explore documents for commonly reported concepts, such as grievances, from a specific theoretical lens. The theoretical lens that the researcher is looking through will guide the analysis and the results obtained may confirm, or refute the viewpoint being considered, thus allowing multiple levels of analysis through different theoretical lenses. Therefore, Content Analysis has the ability to review a workplace grievance about an *ogre* (e.g. harsh, deliberate and intrusive micro-management) using a theoretical lens. For example, using Social Cognitive Theory can assist in determining whether a positive process was followed to address grievances with regard to the theories notion of conflict resolution (Dalton & Cosier, 1991; (Deutsch, Coleman & Marcus, 2011). Similarly, with regard to Feminist theory for example, Content Analysis can assist in determining whether grievances between staff are an unnecessary result of patriarchy (Knudsen, 2004) which can facilitate *ogre* behaviour. In this way the content analysis process allows researchers to critically look at a workplace grievance from a particular theoretical lens, so that it can compare and contrast concepts that may evolve within the literature and assist in developing hypotheses to supplement the validity and generalisability of the results (Eisenhardt, 1989; Ravenswood, 2011).

The technique of guided analysis is beneficial for contributing to current theory when used by Content Analysis methodology for endorsing the assumptions of the theoretical perspective being used in the research (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). These concepts can then be

compared to an applied definition of bullying, such as one from the Work Health and Safety Act (2012), or other associated legislations. This comparison helps the researcher to differentiate actual bullying cases from general cases of conflict. Once data in relation to behaviour has been located within the files, data around bullying can be confirmed by other researchers using the same selection of files and behavioural data. This verification process ensures that results obtained by analysis are accurate because the same results can be replicated and therefore verified by other researchers. Content Analysis allows the opportunity to compare research results with similar results, interpretations, and conclusions with that of existing research and theoretical perspectives, to validate results and to reference their generalisability (Kohlbacher, 2006).

Content Analysis has been noted as still being a young discipline (Kohlbacher, 2006) and can be further developed and improved as some of the amendments, critiques and limitations demonstrate. Therefore, Kohlbacher (2006) recommended that Content Analysis be applied to case study research so that the methodology can be advanced as it gains attention and use on an international basis.

Strengths of Content Analysis. It is strongly argued that Content Analysis is a valid and reliable tool for qualitative inquiry (Kohlbacher, 2006; Weber, 1990), and this demonstrates a number of strengths, particularly in relation to identifying themes and patterns in quantifiable behaviours from information in documents (Stemler, 2001). Further, Content Analysis is able to manage multifaceted levels of information, is guided by theory, can incorporate different types of data, is not obtrusive in comparison to other methodologies (e.g., interviews) and, can be validated at greater strength when used in conjunction with automated software analysis such as Leximancer Analysis. These characteristics are discussed below with reference to formal grievances obtained through archival reviews.

Validity. To measure the validity of Content Analysis, semantic and sampling validity (material-oriented), correlative and predictive validity (result-oriented), and construct validity (process-oriented) must be considered (Kohlbacher, 2006). Semantic validity refers to the appropriate category definitions, the coding rules, and examples that are used to reconstruct the material. Sampling validity is present when precise criteria are used for sampling, and correlative validity indicates that of an external criterion (e.g., results of similar research) (Kohlbacher, 2006). If predictions can be reasonably made from the material, then the study is said to have predictive validity. Construct validity refers to the ability of previous success, for example, with similar interpretations, models, and theories (Kohlbacher, 2006).

To demonstrate, validity of Content Analysis can be observed in an archival study where formal recording of an event (i.e. staff grievances against their Principal) is documented over a time period. Such an exploratory study requires a unique way to analyse the information so that the incident and its context is able to be appreciated, the resolution is able to be identified, and common concerns and themes among the documented issues or complaints are captured. Content Analysis assists the investigator to explore documents to be categorized by separating documents to align with particular topics being researched, and to ultimately develop an effective and valid coding system (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). This precise system offers validity because, in the case of school grievances, this system may include defined measurements of grievance types, the seriousness of the grievance, length of time it took to for a resolution to be reached, and the outcome of any investigation by leadership within the school. For example, if bullying has been recorded as part of an archived personnel file as a formal complaint, Content Analysis has the ability to identify how bullying may have arisen, and it can identify the content of the bullying behaviour. Content Analysis does this by permitting the investigator to explore all of the raw data to gain a comprehensive picture of all aspects of the incident.

Reliability. To measure reliability, we should consider stability, reproducibility, and accuracy (Kohlbacher, 2006). Stability refers to whether the same results are obtained in a repeated Content Analysis using the same text. Reproducibility indicates that the same results could be achieved under different circumstances (with different coders, for instance); for example, once the data has been located, it can then be verified by other researchers. This ensures that it is reproducible and can be verified by other methods of evaluation. Problems of reliability are often present in inter-coder reliability. While researchers attempt to increase accuracy by eliminating coder bias, two different researchers might have different interpretations of the data and therefore code the same data differently. This can produce slanted or skewed results. Therefore, particular attention needs to be paid to the coding and its trustworthiness. Different coders need to agree when coding the same text (inter-coder reliability) and stability of a single coder (intra-coding reliability) requires similar consideration (Kohlbacher, 2006; Weber, 1990) to ensure that reproducibility has been met on both levels.

In large studies, text coding is often assigned to multiple coders to ensure that the constructs in the data are reliably applied to the same codes by a number of people. Results of the codes are then compared. This can be expensive and time consuming, but can increase the generalizability of the research so that it can be representative of a larger population, to some degree (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In fact it is recommended that researchers in Content Analysis compare their own research, interpretations, and conclusions with that of existing theories and research results (Kohlbacher, 2006) to decrease such reliability issues.

Potential inference problems refer to the risk of drawing conclusions based on theoretical constructs of behaviour. A sample of text or consideration of the whole of the text can become victim to such inferences. Consequently, inference in text analysis can present itself in both internal and external validity based issues.

Finally, if stability and reproducibility have been met, then accuracy is assumed. Accuracy is the extent to which the research has met functional standards (Kohlbacher, 2006). Thus study used one coder only to ensure stability, and used simple coding to ensure potential of reproducibility. As a result, accuracy can be assumed, resulting in overall reliability of the study.

Complex information. Content Analysis is authentic and has an ability to deal with complex levels of obscure information (Weber, 1990). For example, it permits the researcher to observe behaviours in terms of criteria across levels of intensifying conflict without the added complication of emotions. It is comprehensive, holistic, and the methodologically controlled style allows the researcher to completely grasp of the complexity of social situations contained in the data, and then reduce it until the main points are filtered into an analysis. Therefore, qualitative Content Analysis can assist our understanding of complex social phenomenon contained in case study research, for example (Kohlbacher, 2006).

To illustrate, Content Analysis can categorise complex concepts such as bullying into a concise list of actual behaviours, both overt (e.g., physical abuse) and covert (e.g., exclusion from events). Content Analysis is also all-inclusive because it is able to draw on many forms of data for information by inspecting a variety of source documents around an event. Just a few of the possible documents include workplace procedures, interview transcripts, newspapers, and case files.

Content Analysis also uses a methodologically controlled style as it allows the researcher to explore the range of multifaceted social situations contained in the data, and then reduce it until the core points are filtered into an analysis (Kohlbacher, 2006; Weber, 1990). For example, the term bullying is a term that may be used when a teacher dislikes the approach their Principal uses when interacting with them, though the teacher may also dislike their Principal for other reasons, too. Content Analysis can take the whole social situation of

the work environment and separate the actual behaviours from the perceived behaviours (Weber, 1990). This helps the researcher in discovering if the interaction was bullying in terms of an applied definition and behavioural concepts, or whether the inference of bullying was a result of the teachers' perception of the Principal's behaviour. This brief example indicates how Content Analysis can assist in understanding complex social phenomena's (i.e. interactions in the workplace) contained this study (Kohlbacher, 2006).

Data types. Content Analysis has the capacity to incorporate different material/evidence (Yin, 2003a). Therefore, the same technique can be used to analyse different data types; a significant advantage from a practical and quality criterion point of view. An archival study, which documents employee details is a superb example of incorporating different materials because it allows the researcher to address a comprehensive range of issues relating to historical, attitudinal, and behavioural data (Yin, 2003a). To illustrate this with an example from the data, the researcher found an incident where an employee is reprimanded because of the colour they dyed their hair. Through exploring the content of human resources policies concerning dress and behavioural expectations of staff, the researcher was able to understand why that reprimand took place, what may have occurred historically in relation to the colour of hair dye (or the act of dying hair) to be a concern now, and if the reprimand was relating to a behaviour of personal expression or deviance.

This is corroborated further in the claim that case study research is able to utilise a number of methodologies where Content Analysis is used. For example, interviews, observations, document and record analysis, and work samples. As a result, uniting Content Analysis with other qualitative procedures is certainly advantageous when dealing with a range of diverse data material types (Gillham, 2000).

Integration of context is another key strength of Content Analysis. In order to achieve a comprehensive and holistic data analysis the obvious and the covert context is taken into consideration. Questions regarding ‘how’ and ‘why’ are central to the analysis and interpretation of the material. This is a significant feature where Content Analysis is used in case studies; considering processes as they occur in context being the emphasis, rather than the data or method (Cassell & Symon, 1994).

Unobtrusive. The unobtrusiveness of Content Analysis is a benefit because it can reveal complete and non-biased records of data without needing lengthy interviews that may not capture all of the essential detail (Weber, 1990). Participants may not have the time to provide all of the information or they may consciously or unconsciously fail to provide details that can be crucial to the research. By analysing content, the researcher can obtain the material that they require without also gaining information that may be irrelevant, or inappropriate. This further advantage can be undertaken by one researcher on a few files or several researchers using large files for systematic evaluations (Weber, 1990).

An archival study is unobtrusive because the procedure allows all voices to be heard with no biases and without emotion. Generally, in grievance issues, a number of variables are involved. For example, a staff member being interviewed by a researcher about a recent grievance or bullying case may not have the time to provide all of the information. Or they may consciously or unconsciously fail to provide details that can be crucial to the research. As a result, their interpretation of the incident may be clouded by their emotional response to the incident under investigation. Therefore, by analysing content, the researcher can obtain the material that they require without also gaining information that may be irrelevant, inappropriate, or inaccurate. Consequently, Content Analysis allows the researcher to

evaluate raw documented data without taking into account interpretation of individuals with heightened emotions.

Content analysis of archived former employee files. Recognising a dilemma in the school is the first step to being able to commence conversations and building positive relationships that allow resolution (Cardno, 2012; Cardno & Reynolds, 2009) though behaviour presented by some individuals is often difficult to identify as a potential dilemma. For example, *ogre* behaviour includes a cluster of actions that comprise manipulation, is annoying for all those concerned, appears to be superficial, causes trauma and emotional distress for the target, and is extremely repressing (Ashforth, 1997; Babiak & Hare, 2006; Broome, 2008; Clarke, 2005; Crawshaw, 2007; Hare et al., 1991; Leichting, 2005; Silverthorne, 2005). Hence, the individuals who exhibit such behaviour have been termed *ogres* for the purpose of this thesis.

While there are sometimes conversations between leaders about complaints and concerns raised by colleagues, or those that work under them, in most cases the core issue of *ogre* behaviour is never addressed or dealt with by leaders. Equally, as stated earlier in this thesis, the *ogres* are masters of impression management when they are confronted with a complaint about their behaviour (Babiak & Hare, 2006), because they are able to manage the positive impressions their supervisors have of them. Consequently, it appears to others that many minor incidents are resolved quickly, or concluded to be personality differences. Though the appearance of resolution may be the result of seeing multiple incidents out of context, rather than the result of a pattern of behaviour that cannot be resolved.

For leadership interventions, including performance management, policy/procedures and even union involvement are flawed, as union, industrial, and arbitration interventions appear to not always act as an effective guardian of workplace *ogre* behaviour (Roscigno et

al., 2009) because the individual behaviour and/or concerns are addressed, rather than patterns; and the pattern of *ogre* behaviour continues. Existing government policy and its interplay with school policy has also been cited as a major reason why *ogre* behaviour is not controlled (Lewis et al., 2008). By combining the benefits of Content Analysis, with current knowledge available on *ogres*, it may be possible to uncover a deeper understanding of where interventions have not worked, develop new interventions, and influence such policy at both the organisational (e.g. school) and at higher (e.g. industrial) levels.

Leximancer Analysis. Although Leximancer Analysis is more popular than other software tools (e.g., Nvivo) for analysing large quantities of data, Leximancer was chosen for its speed of analysis licensed availability to the researcher. Leximancer does not require manual handling of the data and it can identify themes and concepts quickly. Nvivo requires the researcher to develop themes and categories to code the data, whereas Leximancer can do this automatically (Sotiriadou, Brouwers & Le, 2014). Consequentially, the strengths of Content Analysis can also be enhanced by using it in conjunction with Leximancer Analysis (Mayring, 2001) because of its ability to undertake three activities - recognise and quantify concepts, visually map the concepts, and generate its own dictionary based on the content of the text being examined.

Firstly, Leximancer Analysis recognizes concepts within documentation. For example, Human resource policy and procedures are tools that are used to resolve conflict in the workplace and Leximancer Analysis is able to identify the underlying ‘thinking’ of the policy or procedure. However, such tools do not have the capacity to detect patterns in data (Lewis et al., 2008; Roscigno et al., 2009). For instance, a person may continually be unpleasant to a person that they work with. This may be due to manipulation, gossip about an individual, exclusion from activities, lying, or a range of other behaviours that seem minor

when observed as single incidents. The behaviours may eventually lead to a conflict, but a Human resource procedure cannot recognise this potential; it can only attempt to resolve the concern after it has developed into a conflict. However, Leximancer Analysis has the ability to unpack the application of the Grievance Procedure so that identification of what needs to be included in future versions of the procedure, to improve identification of potential conflict, can occur.

Secondly, Leximancer Analysis identifies the frequency of words and relationships between concepts in terms of foundations that a document (e.g. a Grievance Procedure) has been established with. It is then able to display the extracted information in a visual form in an interactive concept map. This is because Leximancer is a computer program that analyses text and its content in any combination of documents that the researcher requires, and the program quantifies and displays the conceptual structure of the document it has been asked to analyse (Leximancer, 2011).

Leximancer Analysis is able to unpack documents by breaking them into blocks of two sentences, identifying nouns and compound words, and removing semantic and non-verbal information or semantic words that appear weak (e.g., 'and', 'of'). Words and relationships that are used most frequently are termed Concept Seeds. These concept seeds are weighted terms that form the beginning point of concept definitions. Each concept contains one or more concept seeds, depending on their weight within the document (Leximancer, 2011).

The researcher can also direct the tool to search for a concept, ignore concepts, or edit concepts. As it extracts themes and concepts, the researcher is then able to explore the conceptual nature of documents or direct a text search. The concept map provides summaries of the interconnected themes and reveals any inter-dependencies. Therefore, a conceptual or relational analysis is found because such analysis allows the researcher to explore concept

examples, the connections between the concepts, and link back to the original text. For example, a document that is used to resolve conflict can be loaded into the Leximancer computer program.

As part of the analysis of the case study school Grievance Procedure, Leximancer searched for themes and concepts in the document, and uncovered commonalities in the text similar to 'grievance', 'issue', or 'complaint'. This showed that integration of context was not only apparent in Content Analysis of physical documentation, but it also existed within a computer program (Cassell & Symon, 1994). The obvious and the covert context were also taken into consideration as part of Leximancer Analysis, to ensure a comprehensive and holistic data analysis.

Finally, Leximancer Analysis generates its own dictionary and thesaurus based on the content of the document that is being examined by the program. Leximancer constructs and formulates codes according to information that it is able to identify from, so a coding scheme is not required by the researcher. The researcher is then able to analyse concepts and investigate the style of the relationships between concepts from the document being analysed, and to review what the concepts signify in terms of meanings relevant to the research and underpinning theory (SCT, for example). Such a process allows the researcher to undertake a complete conceptual analysis where a document is measured for the frequency and presence of words. During the process, the thesaurus identifies each concept in the document from the evidence of a weighted list of words. For instance, the concept of 'complaint' also includes associated thesaurus items such as 'grievance' and 'issues'.

To illustrate, Leximancer Analysis can look at a Grievance Procedure from a school and identify that a 'Principal' and 'Deputy Principal' may be used interchangeably as the person responsible for solving issues between teachers. Therefore, the researcher can use and classify a more accurate wording (e.g., Leader) rather than search the document to find that

Principal and Vice-Principal have the same meaning and use for the purpose of the document being studied. This leaves the researcher time to analyse other concepts and questions within the document, such as those of ‘how?’ and ‘why?’ which are central to the analysis and interpretation of the material.

In summary, Leximancer Analysis is able to clearly map how obligations, policies, rules, guidelines and/or procedures are developed in a particular way by identifying common themes and concepts to assist the researcher to uncover surplus information. This can aid in the development of an enhanced conflict prediction and conflict resolution instrument. An instrument has the capability to minimise individual negative, covert, manipulative *ogre* behaviours that appear as minor conflicts, but are not resolved with a standard Grievance Procedure (Randle et al., 2007; Sinclair, 2005; Sotiriadou, Brouwers & Le, 2014).

Leximancer Analysis of a school Grievance Procedure. As current procedures generally fail to identify potential conflict (Lewis et al., 2008; Roscigno et al., 2009) Leximancer Analysis is used in this study to identify common themes and concepts within procedures to uncover surplus information to improve conflict resolution techniques.

The document being analysed for this research is the Grievance Procedure of the case study school. Outlined in 8 pages, it is the only tool available for guidance when any type of conflict occurs within the school. Since it is designed to solve disagreements between individuals, it should serve as some support when *ogre* behaviours have caused conflict. This procedure has been in operation since 2008 and the document is essentially a combined policy and a procedure, as it commences with a policy statement and then offers a procedure to follow should a grievance be presented to the Principal or a member of the leadership team.

The document also outlines the definition of grievance and who is available within the school to discuss any concerns which are identified. It also follows the standard guideline that if you have a grievance, you are initially required to discuss the matter with the person you have the issue with. If that fails to resolve the problem, then support from a more senior level of staff is required. Mediation is an option if recommended by the senior staff member or the Principal.

This procedure is scheduled for review every two years by the case study school leadership team and ratified by the board of management. Though, at the time of its analysis, a new version had not been developed, nor had the 2009 version been reviewed. The document is available to all staff members via the staff intranet and provided to new staff members as part of an induction package. It is also available to the public via the school web page.

Design

As outlined in the previous chapter, this research has used a constructivist paradigm, relativist ontology, subjective epistemology in a case study methodology using Content and Leximancer Analysis, through the lens of SCT. This research position is illustrated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Research Position

Paradigm	Constructivism (Post-positivist)
Ontology	Relativist
Epistemology	Subjective
Methodology	Case study
Methods	Content Analysis (archival personnel files), and Leximancer Analysis (Grievance Procedure)
Theory	Social Cognitive Theory

Content Analysis was used on formal archived files following the Leximancer Analysis on the Grievance Procedure. All the files contained information on incidents in terms of demographics, person/s involved, nature of the incident, severity of the incident and the outcome. Files available for this research commenced in 1970 up 2014. There were 194 formal files available that included personnel who had left the school on or before 21st December 2001. Files from 2001 were not part of the study in line with changes in privacy legislation. This ensured that any privacy legislation and any ethical considerations were addressed at the outset.

A pilot study was conducted using formal archival files prior to the full study. The aim of the pilot study was to establish boundaries and provided the researcher with a sample of the incidents that had been presented in the case study school. These incidents were explored to investigate whether *ogres* could be identified through historic files, and if they could be identified, to capture how the leaders in the school addressed and attempted to resolve the behaviours or incidents. Furthermore, the pilot study was designed to also determine if further research was warranted to explore the existence of *ogres* in the education system; the pilot study determined this to be the case.

Extensive research assisted by university databases using various search combinations, and consulting with experts in the area of behaviours failed to provide documentation of comparable studies. Consequently, it was not possible to undertake a replication study. However, there is a multitude of research available on behaviour and grievances within workplaces, much of which has been cited in Chapter 2, and this has assisted in the interpretation of the final results.

After considering a range of archived personnel files it became clear that the analysis would be unique to the case study school. Some recorded issues were not documented thoroughly and so were unable to be used in the study. As a result, the issues that provided

the clearest notes were used to define the final analysis framework that is outlined below in table 4.2.

The researcher determined that any incident requiring a file note was perceived as serious by the person who documented it. The number of incidents recorded, the duration of the incident, level of seriousness, and the outcome were logged by the researcher as themes were present across all four criteria.

Participants and Background

The research took place within a local school in a small city of approximately 20,000 residents. Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) demographic data (ABS, 2011) states that 86.3% of these residents were born in Australia and the median age is 38 years old. Families with school-age children consist of 38.5% (two parent families), and 19.2 (single parent families). The total number of schools in the immediate local area consist of 8 primary schools (kindergarten - grade 6), 3 secondary schools (grades 7-10), and 3 colleges (post year 10). The predominant industries are forestry, farming and manufacturing with a median weekly income of \$856 per week. In 2011, the employment rates were 56.6% full time, 30.0% part-time and 8.5% were unemployed. Of these, 5.6% were employed in the education sector (ABS, 2011).

A co-educational Tasmanian College (Grade 7 to 12) with 800+ students agreed to participate as the case study for this inquiry. The staffing varied from year to year, but historically remained stable with approximately 70 teachers and 35 general staff members. As the school wishes to remain confidential, further demographic details, cannot be provided; however, it is important to note that these details are not relevant to the results of this research.

This research included 16 females and 9 males. Fifteen of these were teachers in other schools before joining the case study school. The remainder were in other employment sectors or roles, or no information was available as to their previous roles. Four participants were employed in non-teaching roles at the case study school, respectively, a bursar, a carpenter, a laboratory technician, and a parent liaison. The remainder were employed as teachers. The archival personnel files of these teachers stated that they were engaged in grades 6 through to grade 12 and taught one or more of the following subjects: accounting, art, consumer studies, drama, English, geography, health, history, maths, music, physical education, religion, speech, science, social science, special education, or technical drawing. Non-teaching staff were not included in the pilot study.

Data source. Archived personnel files were obtained from the school archive and explored from beginning to end of the file. The initial descriptive analysis included recording the role of the person raising the concern, and to whom the concern was initially reported. The analysis provided more background information (length of tenure, previous jobs) so that a baseline could be determined for this individual research. This also assisted in refining a framework that has been developed as a result of this study, to assist in the resolution of *ogre* behaviour in the workplace.

As no alterations to the design was required after the pilot study, the researcher included the results in the full study. In the full study, a total of 25 files contained incidents. Sixteen of the files were female, and nine were male. More than one incident was found in three of the male files, and in one female file. In total, there were 49 recoded incidents that were able to be used for the full study, from a total of 194 files.

The content of the incident was then explored in further detail to uncover the type, duration, level of seriousness and outcome of the incident. These details were recorded in an

excel spreadsheet that was securely stored on the researchers' computer, and when printed, locked in a secure filing cabinet. This factual information determined the framework that is illustrated in Table 1.1

Measures

Each incident identified in the archival files was divided into four categories to assist the researcher in developing codes that could be analysed, and supported by research. The categories were determined from common themes identified in the pilot study, and coded by the researcher as 1, 2, or 3 for ease of classification. The categories included type of incident, duration of the incident, level of seriousness of the incident, and the outcome of the incident. Sub categories were also applied for further classification purposes. Table 4.2 outlines the categories, and the sub-categories that were also applied according to Content Analysis methodology of what was found in the files.

Table 4.2.

Analysis Framework

INCIDENT							
Type		Duration		Level of Seriousness		Outcome	
1	Industrial/Wage concern	1	Short	1	Weak	1	Resolved
2	Behaviour/Action of individual	2	Medium	2	Mild	2	Resigned
3	Interaction among 2 or more people	3	Ongoing	3	Strong	3	Continued

Incident type. Of particular interest is the definition of what has been termed for this research, *ogre* behaviour, and how it presents in the type of incident. Definitions vary across research (Coyne et al., 2003; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Salin, 2001), and the variety of

methodologies used (Hoel et al., 2001) may also lead to inconsistent results. It has also been problematic to ascertain what the most accurate method is to identify (Coyne et al., 2003) an *ogre* or a person who is their intended or unintended target. This adds to the difficulty of researching such a subjective behaviour because both researchers, *ogres*, and victims all appear to have their own idiosyncrasies.

These variations suggest that participants across studies would benefit from a similar definition to enable a precise measurement of the socio-psychological and interactional phenomenon determined to be *ogre* behaviour by this researcher. How this can be done remains a challenge; however, for a study of this type Table 4.3 shows three incident types that were identifiable from the archival files. All of these could be present in *ogre* behaviour or be used to assist in the identification of an *ogre* and contribute to responding to the research questions for this study.

Table 4.3

Incident Type

Code	Incident Type	Definition	File Example	Research Question
1	Industrial/Wage concern	Refers to incidents relating to perceived entitlements and/or terms of employment.	A teacher feels that they are owed long service leave.	Are confusions regarding industrial laws the result of individual perceptions?
2	Behaviour/Action of individual	Refers to an incident relating to something a single individual has done or is doing.	A teacher uses the school car for personal use.	Is there a correlation between the desire for power and authority and <i>ogre</i> behaviours?
3	Interaction among 2 or more people	Refers to incidents and/or concern involved at least one other individual.	Teacher argues with a colleague or parent.	To what extent are negative interactions between individuals influenced by personality?

The types of incidents can also be broken down in terms of *ogre* behaviour and considered through the lens of SCT. The following three sections discuss these assumptions in further detail, linking them to the research questions.

Incident duration. The duration of incidents can provide information about how mediators consider power imbalances in incident resolutions. Mediators who attempt to deal with incidents often confuse the differences between bullying and conflict (Hutchinson et al., 2010; Lewis & Orford, 2005; Saam, 2010). Conflict may be a precursor to bullying, but not necessarily a required factor. However, self-reports have indicated that conflict can be a predictor of future bullying (Baillien, Camps, Van Den Broeck, et. al., 2015). This indicates that those who report they were bullied may overestimate the length of time that they were a victim of bullying. Particularly if the time in conflict prior to the commencement of bullying is also reported by victims as bullying.

Ogre behaviour can frequently signify an unresolved social conflict that has spiralled to an imbalance of power (Silverthorne, 2005; Zapf & Gross, 2001). Also, qualitative data (E.g., Zapf & Einarsen, 2001) indicates that any constructive passive and active conflict solving strategies initially used by victims, and modified throughout the duration of the incident resolution, do not work (Zapf & Einarsen, 2001). Therefore, due to the nature of *ogre* behaviour, it may be proposed that *ogre* behaviour is presented in multiple incidents that are classified as short or long, which may be correlated within power imbalances. Rarely would an example of *ogre* behaviour be expected to be resolved within one or two weeks, simply because an *ogre* is always looking for, and exploiting the vulnerability of others (Hare, 1993).

SCT would argue that those who hold power would be basing their behaviour on models that they have symbolised as having power (Bandura, 1999). For example, a teacher

in a school identifies the Principal as having power and the teacher observes the behaviour of the Principal and models that behaviour. This indicates that the person has developed symbolising capability, but if they have an unrealistic belief of their own power, as an *ogre* would, conflict and incidents may be the result. Without this underlying understanding, conflicts may take some time to resolve.

Consequently, the duration of the incident can provide important information about *ogre* behaviour, and of others involved. When SCT and the research question is applied, further information is able to be uncovered. Therefore, Table 4.4 outlines the classifications that have been applied to the duration of the incidents.

Table 4.4

Incident Duration

Code	Incident Duration	Definition	File Example	Research Question
1	Short	A one-off incident that is has been recorded as resolved within 5 working days of the incident commencing.	A teacher breaches a dress code policy by wearing a revealing dress.	Is there a correlation between the desire for power and authority and <i>ogre</i> behaviours?
2	Medium	An incident that has occurred once or more and takes 6 to 25 working days to resolve.	Two teachers have a disagreement and agree to have a mediation session.	
3	Lengthy	An incident that has occurred once or more and takes 26 days or more to be resolved, or fails to be resolved.	A deputy Principal persistently demonstrates <i>ogre</i> behaviours.	

Level of seriousness. Level of seriousness often depends on how serious one or more parties perceive the incident to be. Perceptions of behaviour (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) and of the work environment (Coyne et al., 2003) appear to make a difference to results (Aquino, 2000; Kaukiainen et al., 2001), and may even provoke negative behaviour

(Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). All relevant studies consulted for this research gave a definition of behaviour before the participant contributed to the study, and this may alter the perception of the behaviour and/or incident itself. This can tell us about *ogre* behaviour because we would expect to see a number of weak incidents documented depending on their level of motivation. SCT would relate this to the individual's self-regulatory capability (Bandura, 1991). In terms of this research, motivation for fairness would be increased if a teacher perceived they were being provided with less than their leave entitlements. If that teacher had *ogre* tendencies, further incidents may have resulted.

Therefore, to remove the perception variable, this study did not focus on perceptions to determine the level of seriousness. Table 4.5 outlines how this research used a grievance-type procedure as an indicator rather than perceptions. The further that the incident progresses, the more serious it is determined to be.

Table 4.5

Level of Incident Seriousness

Code	Level of Seriousness	Definition	File Example	Research Question
1	Weak	Incident documentation by Principal and/or other involved with no further action required.	A staff member is scolded by the Principal for failing to do a requested task.	Are confusions regarding industrial laws the result of individual perceptions?
2	Mild	The incident required leadership intervention, mediation, or a conciliation to obtain a resolution.	2 teachers argue over timetables and the Principal intervenes and resolves the concern.	
3	Strong	An external advocate (union, external mediation, arbitration) was required for a resolution to be reached.	The Principal and teacher are unable to agree on a wage rate, so resolution from Fair Work Commission is the only option.	

Outcome. It can be argued that the outcome of grievances, issues, investigations or conflict can often be the result of personality differences and our ability to self-reflect on our own thinking and others behaviours (Bandura, 1999). SCT would argue that the capacity to be self-reflective would also apply to the satisfactory outcome of concerns and grievances. When self-reflecting, no one size fits all applies (Bandura, 1999). For example, when verifying our thought process around anger we need to consider it in terms of the environmental factors causing the anger in addition to our personality type. These considerations may not include the conditional circumstances that cause someone to behave aggressively; however, they may include the type of anger (e.g., aggression, verbal abuse), who or what may be causing the anger, the power status of individuals involved, the social environment, and the level and type of provocation (Nielsen & Knardahl, 2015).

For the purposes of this analysis, it would be hypothesised that *ogres* would have a personnel file that contained a range of minor, resolved incidents. It also appears that acceptance of ability to perpetrate *ogre* behaviour is limited to the place the individual holds in the organisational hierarchy. For example, Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) found that the perpetrators in their study were jealous of the qualifications of their victims rather than appreciating and valuing them to facilitate the professional development of the organisation. Similarly, most of the respondents in a later van Heugten (2010) study were in middle leadership and were bullied by superiors. These superiors were often supportive of the victim until they were promoted into middle leadership; often after completion of qualifications. This was the triggering situation that signalled the starting point of the *ogre* behaviour, as triggers are characteristically the motivator (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

An *ogre* may present in the archival files as one who has many unresolved and continued documented issues against them, justified by differences in personality (Hare, 1993). In terms of the *ogre* behaviour, these issues may be from those that are reportable to

them. An example may be where a new head of faculty may complain about a fellow head of faculty, or Deputy Principal on a number of occasions. The archival file would have notes to indicate that the person recording the concerns assumed personality differences as the cause of the complaints.

Table 4.6 outlines the classification used for the outcome of the incident, with consideration to the research question.

Table 4.6

Outcome of Incident Investigation

Code	Outcome	Definition	Example	Research Question
1	Resolved	There is evidence that a resolution was reached or the incident required no follow up.	2 teachers meet with the Principal, issue is resolved, 1 detailed file note.	To what extent are negative interactions between individuals within the workplace influenced by personality?
2	Resignation	One or more people involved in the incident resigned within 6 months of the incident/s occurring.	A teacher resigns after a formal mediation process with a colleague.	
3	Continuance	There is an absence of documentation outlining a resolution to the incident.	A deputy Principal is able to continue to bully a teacher.	

Summary

The above provides a strong indication that the integration of quantitative analysis steps, through interpretive and descriptive methods, can increase the application of findings, providing a deeper insight into the object of the research, and result in adding and synthesising theories. Therefore, by analysing quantitative data to add to the overall picture of other qualitative data, a researcher can be more confident about the validity of the results

based on the integration of a range of different evidence and materials in addition to qualitative and quantitative analysis steps (Kohlbacher, 2006).

Thus, Content Analysis permits a thorough inspection of archival files as layers of information against a theoretical assessment, and formal material/evidence are clearly able to be distinguished, allowing for critical insight into a context which otherwise may have been lost. Accordingly, it can be a valuable technique for allowing researchers to discover and define social attention, or explain the motivation of individual, group, or institution (Weber, 1990).

The methods sections of this chapter have highlighted the strengths of Content and Leximancer Analysis and it has been argued that used together with a case study method and supported by Social Cognitive Theory there is the ability to combine quantitative Content Analysis with a qualitatively oriented approach, and contribute to enhancing rigour, validity and reliability of case study research.

Chapter 5: Results

Introduction

In this thesis, Leximancer Analysis was used to evaluate the documented Grievance Procedure and Content Analysis was used to review formal archival files. This chapter begins with an introductory background to the study, and then present the results from the Content Analysis. Results of the Leximancer Analysis of the case study school's school Grievance Procedure is then presented to showcase how both of these techniques, on retrospective document analysis, can provide vital information for identifying *ogres* in the workplace.

Pilot Study Results

Before conducting the full study it was necessary to consider the variety of behaviours recorded by the school that were seen as concerning; hence, a pilot study was conducted. The analysis framework which was applied is outlined in the previous chapter, and repeated here again for convenience, in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Analysis Framework

INCIDENT							
Type		Duration		Level of seriousness		Outcome	
1	Industrial/Wage concern	1	Short	1	Weak	1	Resolved
2	Behaviour/Action of individual	2	Medium	2	Mild	2	Resigned
3	Interaction among 2 or more people	3	Ongoing	3	Strong	3	Continued

Ten formal archival files between the periods of 1973 until 1987 were used for the pilot study. Non-teaching staff were not included in the pilot study. Of these 10, 8 files with

identified and recorded incidents were chosen, with assistance from the school archivist, for use in the pilot study. Two files without incidents were also included in the analysis as a reference starting point. All 10 files were read by the researcher from commencement to end, to ensure every possible incident was noted.

Five of the subjects in the files were female, and five were male. Three of the male files contained incidents and all five of the female files contained incidents. More than one incident was found in one male file and in one female file. In total, there were 13 recorded incidents from 8 of the files that were able to be used for the pilot study. The Content Analysis of the incidents is illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Pilot Study Results

INCIDENT							
Type		Duration		Level of Seriousness		Outcome	
1	(5) 38.5%	1	(5) 38.5%	1	(10) 77%	1	(9) 69%
2	(5) 38.5%	2	(3) 23%	2	(0) 0%	2	(3) 23%
3	(3) 23%	3	(5) 38.5%	3	(3) 23%	3	(1) 8%

Type. Types of incidents found in the personnel files varied, but more than one third (38.5%) were related to pay disputes (type 1). Interpretation of the Industrial Award that governs the case study school clearly differed between staff members and the leadership team, and this resulted in a large number of Principal to staff member documentation about disagreements. This number of concerns is an indicator that confusions regarding industrial laws may be the result of individual perceptions.

More than another third were related to individual behaviours (type 2). Behavioural concerns were mainly about staff members doing something or acting in a way that was not in accordance with the expected norms or regulations of the school. For example,

inappropriate dress or using school property for personal use appeared to be regular occurrences. Similarly, interactions with others (type 3) were a concern on three occasions (23%). These included negative interactions with others such as arguing with a colleague, or offending another person or people with a comment, for examples.

Duration. Incidents were either resolved quickly (38.5%), or continued for some time (38.5%). If the incident was not resolved within the week, it was likely to last more than a month. Some incidents that took more than a month or close to a month to resolve seemed to take a little longer due to school holidays. Therefore, attention to the matter was delayed.

Level of seriousness. The majority of the incidents recorded were minor incidents (77%), but three became larger concerns (23%). The pilot study revealed that if incidents were not resolved quickly, they rapidly became a serious issue. In the pilot study, there was no evidence of intervention required at a school level by leadership, which would indicate a mild level of seriousness.

Outcome. In this research, 'Resolved' had two meanings. Firstly, it referred to the availability of further clear documented evidence of a resolution being reached. That was the result in the majority of cases (69%). Secondly, 'Resolved' also meant that the recording of information in regards to the incident ceased and therefore *appeared* to be resolved. In this pilot, only one incident was ongoing, but three were clearly concluded as the result of the staff member resigning from their position.

Full Study Results

Following the pilot study, no adjustments to the methodology or implementation of the full study were made. The pilot study indicated that the methodology was suitable to gain the required research data, and the pilot study data was included in the complete data analysis. The analysis framework from Table 4.1 was also used, with no variations.

From the 194 files, 49 incidents were identified. These were contained in 25 of the files and length of detail about the incidents ranged from 2 pages of detail, up to approximately 100 pages. Four of the files had more than one recorded incident. The analysis of incidents from the full study (including the pilot study findings) is illustrated in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Research Results

INCIDENT							
Type		Duration		Level of Seriousness		Outcome	
1	(10) 20.4%	1	(10) 20.4%	1	(18) 36.7%	1	(20) 40.8%
2	(11) 22.4%	2	(8) 16.3%	2	(28) 57.2%	2	(7) 14.3%
3	(28) 57.2%	3	(31) 63.3%	3	(2) 6.1%	3	(22) 44.9%

Type. Types of incidents found in the full study were similar to the pilot study, in that disputes and individual behaviour were identified as equally most common. Any of these incidents could be the result of *ogre* behaviours. However, this was on a smaller scale in the full study. Industrial/wage concerns and individual behaviour concerns accounted for more than one third (42.8%) of the results. For example, an industrial concern from incident type 1 (20.4%) included a bursar who had resigned from her accounting position, but was required to calculate her own final pay. After being checked by the Principal it was believed to be in excess of what the bursar was entitled to. This resulted in a concern regarding entitlements under the governing enterprise agreement, and was documented as a grievance in the archival personnel file of the bursar.

An example of an individual behaviour that was categorised in incident type 2 (22.4%) was where a carpenter employed by the school was found to be under the influence of alcohol while performing his work. He was also leaving the school before his scheduled

departure time. He was reprimanded by the Principal for both actions, and a note was placed on his archived personnel file.

Nearly two thirds (57.2%) of the concerns were related to interactions with others. These types of concerns were identified on 28 occasions. An example of these incident type three concerns related to a teacher who went on leave, and failed to leave notes about the progress of her class for the substitute teacher. This resulted in a complaint being written to the Principal, and an argument between the two teachers when the regular teacher returned from leave. These interactions were similar to the pilot study as they included concerns such as student discipline or offensive comments directed toward to colleagues.

Given that the interactions were between multiple types of people (e.g., parent versus teacher or teacher versus teacher) with varying personalities, this gives merit to the hypotheses that, to some extent, negative interactions between individuals may be influenced by personality, or a desire for power and authority, depending on the situation, and the lead up to the grievance (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Crawshaw, 2007).

Duration. Similar to the pilot study, if the incident was not resolved within the week, it was likely to last more than a month. This was the case in two-thirds of the incidents (63.3%), and on some occasions the incident was repeated (16.3%).

In more than one case, the incident lasted for several years. For example, one long-term incident was where multiple complaints about a teacher was received in regard to the derogatory manner in which he spoke to others (colleagues, students, and parents). These complaints were received from multiple sources (parents, other teachers and leadership superiors), but the nature of the complaints in isolation were not serious enough to justifiably terminate his employment. Therefore, each time the Principal spoke to him, he was only able to address each concern individually by requesting that the teacher consider his conduct when

interacting with others. These complaints were received by the Principal over a period of several years, until the teacher eventually resigned for a reason not documented.

In terms of this example, and the research questions, such behaviour may indicate that there is a correlation between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours. Although not conclusive, speaking to others in a derogatory manner can be a sign of a power struggle. These patterns are also common with *ogre* behaviours (Babiak et al., 2010; Clarke, 2005; Crawshaw, 2007), so this example could conceivably be an indicator of an *ogre*.

Level of seriousness. More than half of the incidents (57.2%) required intervention from a school leader in an attempt to resolve the problem. Comparatively, the pilot study indicated that the majority of the incidents would be minor, with little or no evidence of intervention at a school level by leadership. For example, in-house mediation with assistance from other leadership members, or use of a grievance type procedure may have assisted in reducing some incidents in the pilot; although, any middle step such as this was not implemented, so each incident was either minor or went to industrial court as there was never an occasion where a staff member from leadership may have attempted to intervene before the industrial commission became involved.

However, this was not the case in the full study. An example of one incident was where a mathematics teacher received multiple complaints about his teaching, from parents and colleagues. Each time, a member of leadership was required to intervene to ensure the behaviour or action was not repeated. This suggests that the majority of the concerns were mild, rather than minor, as indicated by the pilot study.

In terms of this research, many of the mild concerns were related to individual behaviour. Again, the example indicates that the behaviour was not in terms of interactions with others, but something that the teacher was doing that caused distress to others. These

types of behaviour can also be linked to *ogre* type behaviours (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Clarke, 2005).

Outcome. The outcome was nearly equally distributed between either *being resolved* (40.8%) or *continuing* (44.9%), and 7 cases (14.3%) decided that *resignation* was the preferred option. Similarly, the pilot study indicated that the majority of cases were *resolved*, or recording of information ceased, signifying the end to the concern. Quite often, it appeared that documentation decreased as the incidents were resolved. The full study uncovered many more ongoing cases in comparison to the pilot study. For example, there were notes in one of the archival files regarding a female grade six teacher's overly authoritative language and behaviour toward other individuals. This behaviour was mild, but the duration was ongoing; making it difficult to for her supervisor to use the Grievance Procedure, as it was about individual behaviour rather than behaviour between individuals.

In terms of this research, this is a prime example of where potential *ogres* are able to avoid being challenged or reprimanded, as the traditional Grievance Procedure only applies to concerns between two or more individuals, not individual behaviour observed by others. Therefore, the Grievance Procedure leans heavily toward verifying the hypothesis that to some extent, negative interactions between individuals within the workplace are influenced by personality (Mathisen et al., 2011; Seigne et al., 2007), rather than the actual behaviour as in this example.

Leximancer

The current study analyses the case study school's Grievance Procedure in terms of human resource practices and mandates for behaviour regulation. Human resource procedures are needed because even if there is the ability to decrease the likelihood of employing *ogres*, occasionally a workplace will still be presented with an *ogre* and will need

to understand what support mechanisms are available for both the school and its employees. These support mechanisms are generally in the form of a workplace Grievance Procedure. Thus, by analysing the concepts in the current Grievance Procedure, themes may be able to be identified that could be included in later versions of the document. Ultimately, by ensuring the appropriate concepts are considered, required themes will be identified that also correspond with resolution, and success, and options.

Grievances procedures. A typical school grievance may be where two or more teachers are in conflict with each other. A fictitious example may be where two teachers, who will be named Cathy and Sue, are working together on planning the end of year grade 10 leavers dinner, but cannot agree on a suitable location. Cathy feels that Sue is not taking her ideas into consideration, and raises a grievance by writing a letter to the Principal. The Grievance Procedure outlines that the aggrieved person should approach the other person first. Therefore, the Principal will encourage Cathy to talk to Sue about her concerns, if she hasn't already, and try to resolve the issue between themselves. If that is unsuccessful, the Principal will meet with both teachers and hear both sides of their concern. During the meeting with the Principal, Cathy and Sue may be able to compromise and choose a location for the dinner. The location may not be a preference for either of them, but still a very suitable place to hold a school dinner. However, if Cathy and Sue are still unable to agree, the Principal will possibly make the final decision on the location, and both teachers will continue with their planning. At this stage, the Principal may or may not make a note for the personnel files of each teacher. It will depend entirely on the Principals perception of the seriousness of the matter.

This situation highlights an example of where the Grievance Procedure has worked and is a suitable guideline to resolve issues, because the matter has resulted in a good outcome for all involved. In an ideal world the procedure would result in a resolution, and all

parties would amicably return to their daily duties and professionally survive well together. However, all too often the procedure does not work. In this scenario, both teachers could end up so angry at each other, that they spend the rest of the year arguing over every minor detail of their planning. So much so that their mutual distain becomes obvious to their colleagues, and both of them end up in the Principal's office on more occasions. This would mostly be because Cathy is feeling that Sue is ignoring her input into the project. This may be further compounded if Sue is actually an *ogre* and is using the leaver's dinner preparation as a way to make herself look good to the leaders in the school, by undermining Cathy. This may be Sue's ultimate plan to gain power within the school by hopefully being offered a leadership position at the end of the year.

If Sue is an *ogre*, this Grievance Procedure is unlikely to assist Cathy. This is because, when faced with the Principal in the first instance, Sue may even agree to Cathy's location, rather than a compromise. However agreement will only be for appearance. Sue wants to appear agreeable in the eyes of the Principal. Sue will then covertly sabotage the location in attempt to discredit Cathy's ability to offer suitable ideas. Alternatively, Sue has also probably deliberately constructed a very good relationship with the Principal. This will ensure that the Principal may even favour Sue's location for the dinner during the grievance process - simply because she likes Sue. Consequently, any future visits to the Principals office will appear to the Principal as Cathy being difficult to work with.

In these cases, it can be argued that the Grievance Procedure may actually contribute to the reinforcement of *ogre* behaviours. Because this allows the *ogre* an opportunity to appear agreeable and willing to find solutions when they first need to meet with the other party and the Principal. This could be particularly so if he or she has been able to manage the Principal's impression of them, and they appear eager to agree (e.g. on a location). What the procedure does not offer is a way to identify if the concern is a single and solvable grievance,

or the ongoing result of *ogre* behaviour, but considered by the Principal as individual concerns, rather than a pattern of behaviour. However, by analysing the Grievance Procedure with Leximancer we are able to identify the intricate thematic interrelationships that can result in desired successes or potential failures in the Grievance Procedure.

The following section explores the results of a Leximancer Analysis of the case study schools' Grievance Procedure. It highlights the common themes and concepts that are contained in the written documentation that is designed to resolve grievances within the school. The results are interpreted in accordance with the constraints of Content Analysis methodology.

Leximancer Analysis. The Leximancer Analysis comprises the computerised program generating themes and concepts. *Themes* are higher-level groupings of concepts that appear often in the same document, and *Concepts* are collections of words that mostly travel together in the document being analysed (Leximancer, 2011). Themes are used in this study to identify what the case study school considers as the most important constructs in resolving conflict. Concepts are used in this study to understand the content of the themes at a deeper level. Both themes and concepts are necessary as they provide an integrated and objective picture of the Grievance Procedure. The implications of identifying themes and concepts separately and classifying individual constructs within each of these is one way to gain the much-needed insight into how procedures can be misaligned to the needs of its various users. Specifically, Leximancer can be used to identify themes that are currently present in the document, and possibly identify themes that may be missing when faced with an *ogre*.

The concept map below (Figure 5.1) was generated by the Leximancer program as a result of loading the case study school's Grievance Procedure into Leximancer (Leximancer, 2011). Each balloon contains what Leximancer terms as a concept seed word at the centre.

Related concepts are then automatically placed by Leximancer in accordance with its relationship to the concept, and the number of times they appear together in the block of text.

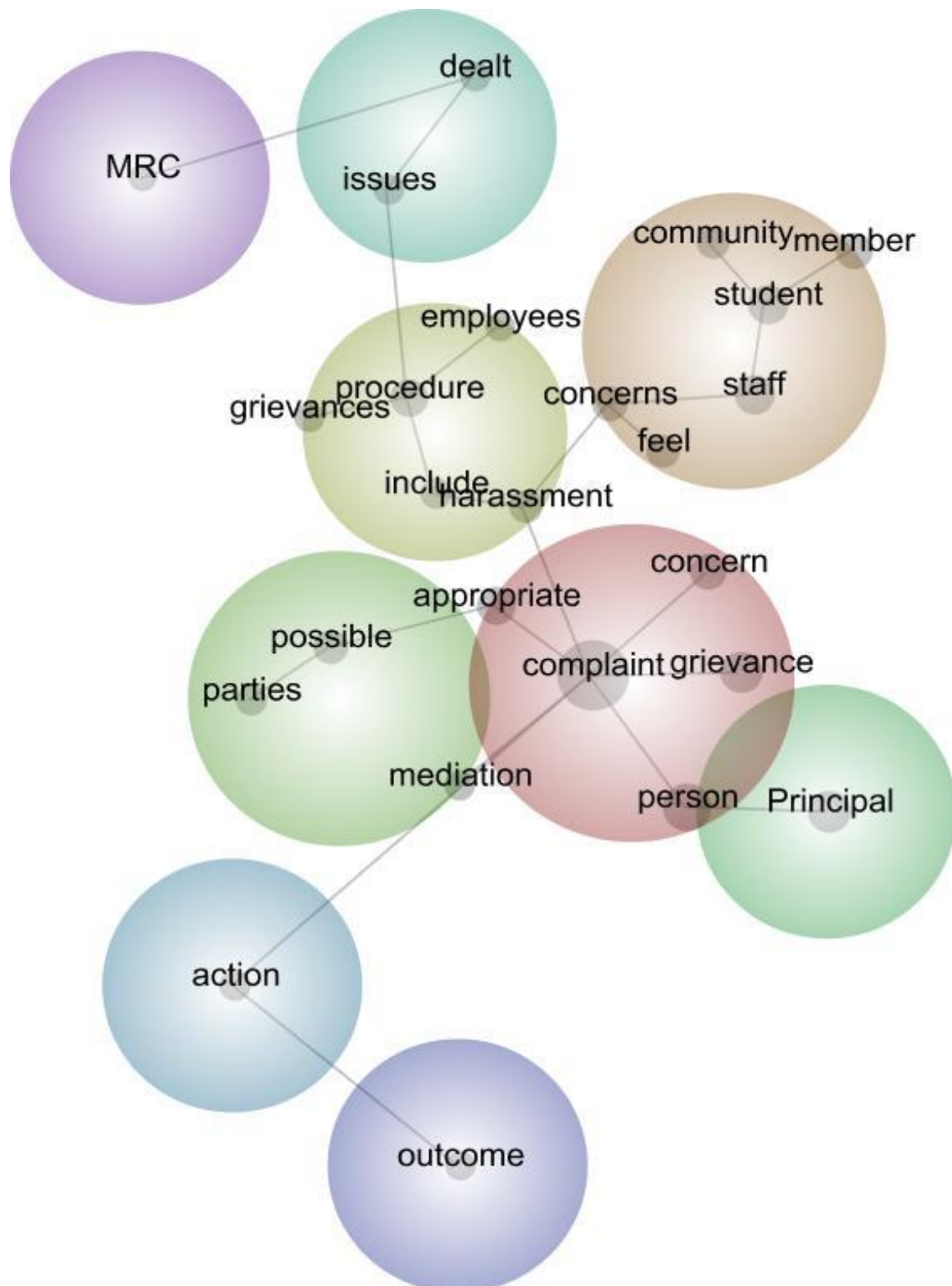


Figure 5.1. Leximancer concept map.

For illustration purposes, Leximancer orders the concepts in rank and then colour-coordinates them. The most common concepts are heat mapped with the colour wheel according to their frequency in the document. If they are more frequent in the document, they have more weight, according to Leximancer. Therefore, the most common concepts are weighted high and termed ‘hot’ and they appear in a red balloon. The remaining concepts are distributed according to their frequency in the document. These lighter and ‘cooler’ concepts correspond in the map with lighter or cooler colours (i.e. blue), in accordance with the colour wheel (Leximancer, 2011).

When considering the fictitious grievance between Cathy and Sue, and reading the map below, it can be seen that *complaint* is the most common theme in the document according to Leximancer. This is indicated by the number of times the word *complaint* appears in the document and its position in the red balloon. Therefore, in this situation, the grievance that Cathy raised would be the ‘hottest’ concept and placed at the centre of the red balloon.

Connectivity is also provided within Leximancer. This is presented by a percentage which has estimated theme coverage across the data, because it refers to the total number of co-occurring counts of each concept within the theme. On the map, it can be seen that *complaint* is also closely linked to *grievance* and *concern*. This would be expected as, in the Cathy and Sue example grievance, it is likely that the situation would be interchangeably termed *grievance*, *issue* or *concern*; depending on which word is favoured by each individual involved. Consequently, the document also appears to use these words interchangeably, and this has been identified by Leximancer as indicated by their close grouping in the red balloon.

In total, Leximancer identified 25 concepts and 9 themes in the document for consideration in this current research. These are outlined in figure 5.1, and clarified afterwards.

Concepts. The black labels (or words) on the map are concepts. They are identified as concepts based on the frequency of their occurrence in the text document. Leximancer identified 25 concepts in the Grievance Procedure of the case study school. These are outlined in table 5.4, listed in order of their ranking, with 1 being ranked as the most relevant concept, and 25 being ranked the least important concept. The brackets indicate the number of times the concept appears in the document.

Table 5.4

Concepts Ranked in Order of Frequency and Relevancy

1	complaint (47)	10	member (9)	19	parties (5)
2	person (23)	11	outcome (9)	20	issues (5)
3	Principal (18)	12	concern (8)	21	dealt (5)
4	grievance (14)	13	possible (7)	22	mediation (4)
5	[name of school] (10)	14	action (7)	23	grievances (4)
6	staff (10)	15	feel (6)	24	include (3)
7	student (10)	16	concerns (5)	25	employees (3)
8	procedure (10)	17	harassment (5)		
9	appropriate (9)	18	community (5)		

Relevance percentage, which is a representation of the count value of each concept divided by the single highest count value, is also included in the final analysis. The count value identifies the entire number of context blocks across the data that every single concept is identified within. To clarify, the most common concept is *complaint*, at 47 occurrences in context blocks in the document. The second most common concept is *person*, with 23 occurrences. Therefore, $23/47 = 49\%$, signifying that the concept of *person* has a 49% relevance to the concept of *complaint*.

The most common concept identified is *complaint*, as indicated by the highest number of counts/occurrences in the document, and also by its place in the red cloud in the concept

map. The red cloud contains only words that indicates the most common concept or concepts. Secondly, *Principal* was the next most common concept with 38% relevance to the complaint concept. *Grievance* was the third most common concept with 30% relevance followed by *staff*, *student*, and *procedure*, all with a 21% relevance to the complaint. Weighing in at 19% were *appropriate*, *member* and *outcome*, with *concern* at 17% relevance. *Possible* and *action* were 15% relevant to the complaint, with *feel* at 13%. *Concern*, *harassment*, *community*, *parties*, *issues* and *dealt* weighed in at 11% with *mediation* and *grievances* at 9%, with *include* and *employees* at 6% relevance to the complaint concept.

Considering that the procedure relates to grievances, it is not surprising that *grievance* is a highly weighted concept. However, it is thought-provoking to note that the Leximancer thesaurus did not group the concept of *grievance* with *complaint*, and left it as a concept in its own right. Further analysis may provide very different results should the user decide to manually identify concepts and group grievance and complaint together.

Themes. Themes in Leximancer are concepts that appear together often. Leximancer ranked 9 themes according to their relative connectivity with the most common theme of *complaint*. Respectively these are, staff (62%), procedure (34%), possible (20%), Principal (16%), issues (10%), action (6%), outcome (5%), and [name of school] (3%). These are outlined in the Table 5.5, listed in order of their ranking, with 1 being ranked as the most important and highest, with 9 being ranked the least important and lowest.

Table 5.5

Themes Ranked in Order of Importance

1	Complaint	4	Possible	7	action
2	Staff	5	Principle	8	outcome
3	Procedure	6	issues	9	[name of school]

Complaint. The most common theme with regard to Grievance Procedure is *complaint*. As themes are concepts that appear together often, it is not surprising that *complaint* is both a concept and a theme. *Complaint* in this research and the document being analysed refers to a concern that a staff member has raised with a member of school leadership. Leximancer has included the concepts of *complaint*, *person*, *grievance*, *appropriate*, and *concern* in this complaint theme.

In the Case Study School Grievance Procedure (2009), the term *complaint* can be illustrated in context in the following excerpt from the document: “Each complaint will be finalised within as short a period of time as is practicable. Complainants will be advised if the matter cannot be finalised within one month” (p. 4). The term *person* in the complaint theme, both in terms of the research and the document, means *individual*. *Person* is also put into context through the following statement from the document: “The only people who will have access to information about the complaint will be: the person making the complaint, the person about whom the complaint is made, the person to whom the complaint is made, and the person investigating the complaint” (p. 3).

Grievance in the context of the document and the research refers to an issue that cannot be resolved between two people. Within the theme of *complaint*, it is also evident in the following excerpt: “If the grievance is against the Principal and the complainant has been unable to resolve the matter in an informal way, he or she should seek redress with the [name of school] Governing Council” (p. 4). Similarly, with the term *appropriate* within the *complaint* theme, the meaning is *suitable*, in terms of the document and research. Further, the document states, “If there is a good reason why it is inappropriate for the designated person to deal with your complaint, the complaint will, with your consent, be referred to another appropriate person” (p. 4). Lastly, within the *complaint* theme is *concern*. In this research and document of the case study school, *concern* means *a worry* and can be

illustrated by the following statement from the document: “For a parent with a concern about a student or a member of staff, the concern should first be discussed with the relevant coordinator. For a student with a concern about another student or a member of staff, the concern should first be discussed with the relevant home class teacher or coordinator” (p. 2).

With *complaint* being the ‘hottest’ theme, it is correctly suggesting that the theme of the document is about complaints, and this would be expected, as it is a Grievance Procedure. While complaints are part of the Grievance Procedure, it is important to appreciate that complaints in terms of Leximancer Analysis also includes the concepts of *person*, *grievance*, *appropriate*, and *concern*.

In relation to this study, Leximancer shows that the document should assist in resolving concerns, because the *complaint* theme is the focus. For example, the Content Analysis of the archived personnel files revealed that interactions with others were a concern on 28 occasions. If these concerns were listed as complaints, this document would outline what steps to follow to have them resolved.

The second theme that is most closely connected with the complaint theme is *staff*, with 62% connectivity. The *staff* theme includes the concepts of *staff*, *student*, *member*, and *concerns* (plural - unlike the singular noun of concern, outlined above). *Staff* in this research and the document include all employees of the school, and this can be illustrated in the same statement as *concern* as stated in the Case Study School Grievance Procedure (2009) document: “For a parent with a concern about a student or a member of staff, the concern should first be discussed with the relevant coordinator. For a student with a concern about another student or a member of staff, the concern should first be discussed with the relevant home class teacher or coordinator” (p. 2).

Likewise, *student* in terms of this research and document means a young person who is enrolled to attend the case study school. Within the *staff* theme, *student* has been put into

context in this section of the document: “For a member of staff with a concern about a student or parent, the concern should first be raised with the relevant home class teacher or coordinator. For a member of staff with a complaint about another member of staff, the concern should first be raised with the Director of Student and Staff Welfare, or the Principal, if the Director of Student and Staff Welfare is involved in the complaint” (p. 2).

The concept of *member* in this research and the document refers to a member of staff who is employed by the school. The *member* concept within the staff theme can be contextualised by reading the following excerpt from the document: “For a parent, student or member of staff with a complaint about the Principal, the concern should be raised with the Principal. The Principal will negotiate with the complainant an agreed process within a set time frame and try to resolve the complaint” (p. 2). *Concerns* mean *worries* or *distress* in this research and document, and can be illustrated in the context of the document within the *staff* theme by reading the following statement from the document: “Raising the complaint directly with the person perceived as causing the grievance may sometimes address the concerns of the aggrieved person” (p. 1).

The close connection between the theme of *complaint* and that of *staff* indicates that the document refers most specifically to staff complaints with regard to each other. However, as the only Grievance Procedure available, it would also be expected to have an additional emphasis about complaints regarding students, parents or other stakeholders. Even though these are mentioned, Leximancer indicates that *staff* are the focus, by producing *staff* as an outright theme, which includes *staff* and *student*, rather than *staff* and *student* being produced as themes in their own right. Therefore, while *staff* are a theme in the Grievance Procedure, it is essential to remember that *staff* in terms of Leximancer Analysis also includes the concepts of *student*, *member*, and *concerns*.

In relation to this research, *interactions with others* were a concern on 28 occasions in the Content Analysis of the archived personnel files. Many of these were in relation to staff interactions. Therefore, Leximancer has shown this document may assist in resolving complaints between staff, as *complaints* is the main theme, then *staff* is the closely connected to complaints.

Procedure. The third theme is *procedure*, with 34% connectivity to *complaint*. Leximancer has grouped *procedure* to include the concepts of *procedure* and *harassment*. *Procedure* in this research and document refers to the mandated steps taken to resolve a grievance. The context of *procedure* can be clarified through the following excerpt from the document: “Key elements of our grievance handling procedure: Impartiality. If you make a complaint, it will be investigated in a fair and impartial manner. No judgments or assumptions will be made and no action will be taken until the investigation is complete” (p. 3). Furthermore, harassment in this document is not defined, but for the purpose of this research, and implied in the policy, *harassment* applies to unwelcome behaviour that is repetitive in nature. In the context of the document, *harassment* can be explained as follows: “Examples of grievances covered by this procedure include: concerns about student discipline procedures homework damage or loss of personal property, bullying and harassment” (p. 1).

With regard to the *procedure* theme being so high on connectivity, this indicates that there have been, and according to this document, still are clear steps that must be taken when there is a complaint that needs to be resolved. While *procedure* is a theme in this document, it is important to appreciate that *procedure* in terms of Leximancer Analysis also includes the concept of *harassment*.

In relation to this research, again much of the concerns were in relation to staff interactions, which were a concern on 28 occasions in the Content Analysis of the archived

personnel files. Leximancer identified that this document outlines the steps (e.g. procedure) in resolving complaints between staff, because *complaints* is the main theme, then *staff* is closely connected to *complaints*, and the next closest theme is *procedure*.

Possible, Principal, issues, action, and outcome. These themes only include one concept, which is their namesake. This is because Leximancer has not weighted them high in the themes of the document, in comparison with the *staff* and *procedure* themes. This is interesting given that the document is mostly about staff following a procedure to resolve a complaint. Not surprisingly then, according to Leximancer, *staff* and *procedure* are the themes most closely connected to *complaint*, as outlined above.

Possible had a 20% connectivity to the *complaint* theme. *Possible* in this research and document refers to being able to do something. This is demonstrated in context of the Case Study School Grievance Procedure document (2009, p. 1) in the statement “However that is not always possible. Sometimes several attempts at face-to-face resolution have been attempted or have occurred with little success”. The theme of *possible*, suggests a positive stance in that it is possible to resolve a complaint. Using a Grievance Procedure usually has negative connotations, as grievances are negative experiences. However, in this case it can be considered a positive document as it refers to grievances.

Principal had a 16% connectivity. *Principal* in this research and document refers to the member of leadership employed at the school that holds the highest position in the schools’ hierarchy. In the context of the document (2009, p. 1): “An employee, student, parent or community member may make a complaint about any decision, behaviour, act or omission (whether by the Principal, member of the leadership team, member of staff or a student)”. The theme of *Principal* is a clear indicator that a Principal is involved in resolution of complaints, but also not immune to being complained about. In terms of this

research, the *Principal* was the primary recorder of the issues; and there were no issues in regard to the Principals identified in the research.

Issues had a 10% connectivity to the theme of *complaint*. *Issues* in this research and document are used interchangeably with other words of similar meaning (e.g., concern). Unexpectedly though, Leximancer has not grouped *issue* with *concern* or *concerns*. To illustrate *issues* in the context of the Case Study School Grievance Procedure document (2009, p. 1): “Examples of grievances NOT covered by this procedure include: child protection issues, occupational health and safety issues, enrolment issues, staff industrial issues. These issues are dealt with under section 3 – Other Related Policies”. In the current research 20.4% of the incidents were in relation to employment issues (industrial/wage concerns). Therefore, even if this same policy was available at the time the concerns were raised, more than 1/5 of the issues did not fall into the scope of this supporting mandate.

Action had a 6% connectivity. *Action* in this research and document refers to an activity that has been undertaken in relation to the concern. In the context of the Case Study School Grievance Procedure document (2009, p. 5): “It should be understood that other action may be taken as deemed appropriate”. The action taken can generally be closely correlated to *outcome*, because without an *action*, there cannot be an *outcome*. As a result, *outcome* had similar connectivity with *complaint*, with 5%. *Outcome* in this research and document refers to the finalising of the *grievance*, *issue*, or *concern*. However, it does not refer to an *outcome* that is acceptable to all parties. Hence, in the context of the Case Study School Grievance Procedure document (2009, p. 8): “No satisfactory outcome”. In the Content Analysis of the archived personnel files, 40.8% of cases were resolved, or the recording of information ceased. In these cases, the action usually involved a meeting with the Principal, and the outcome would be that the recording stopped, assuming a resolution.

Finally, as the policy document is in relation to a school, it can be expected that the name of the school would have at least some connection with the main theme. Consequently, the final theme identified was the name of the school, with a 3% connectivity. This can be demonstrated in the context of the Case Study School Grievance Procedure document through this statement: “we are committed to providing a pleasant and safe work environment for all employees and students. We acknowledge, however, that employees, students, parents and caregivers and wider community members can sometimes feel aggrieved about something that is happening at [name of school] which appears to be discriminatory, or to constitute harassment, or is so unreasonable that it causes concerns” (2009, p.1).

Summary

In summary, the full study indicated that the majority (57.2%) of concerns recorded related to interactions or verbal communications with other staff members or students, and have occurred once or more. These concerns took 26 days or more to be resolved (or did not get resolved at all) through leadership intervention. It was found that 40.8% of cases were resolved, but nearly half of these incidents were ongoing, and further, there was no documentation to demonstrate how a resolution was going to be reached.

Of significant relevance to this research, *bully* was not identified as a concept or a theme in the Leximancer Analysis, and the procedure does not provide steps to follow if one individual staff member is causing a concern, as noted in 22.8% of the research results. This suggests that *ogre* behaviour, if apparent, is not being addressed, or may even be reinforced, by Grievance Procedures. Chapter 6 is a discussion of these findings.

Chapter 6: Discussion, Limitations, Recommendations and Conclusion

Discussion

Given the explanation in chapter 3 regarding the use of Content Analysis and Leximancer's role within it, and the presentation of results in chapter 5, this chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the results. These results are analysed in terms of the questions asked in chapter 1, and interpreted in accordance with the contemporary research reviewed in chapter 2, and supported by SCT as outlined in chapter 3.

Questions 1, 2 and 3 are answered in accordance with the results from Content Analysis of archived personnel files, and question 4 is answered using the concepts identified by Leximancer in the case study school's Grievance Procedure. Following the discussion, limitations of the research are outlined, and the chapter closes with recommendations for future research.

Question 1. Is there a relationship between the desire for power/authority and *ogre* behaviours? In answering this question, a link can be acknowledged between the research concern relating to behaviour/action of individuals, the duration of the total number of concerns, and the literature regarding power and authority.

The Content Analysis of the archived personnel files indicates that there is a potential relationship between the desire for power and authority and *ogre* behaviours, but the analysis was unable to explicitly confirm a relationship. The behaviour/action of individuals accounted for a total of 22.4% of all recorded concerns. When considering the duration of concerns, the research further revealed that there were many more ongoing concerns (63.3%) than those that were concerns of short (20.4%) or medium (16.3%) duration. As the majority of all concerns were ongoing, it may be argued that there is a possible relationship between

power and authority and *ogre* behaviour, because the desire for power is an ongoing desire, and individuals behave in accordance with their preferred outcomes. For example, a teacher who wants to work toward being a Principal, will plan his or her whole career around this preferred outcome, and at times may upset others in the course of this ambition. In a school this may be by disregarding his or her colleague's needs for training, or by always being the first to register for all available school leadership training. This may upset other teachers when they are not offered the opportunity for extra training, and so one eventually complains.

Literature also tells us that *ogres* possess some form of desire for power and are not concerned with upsetting anyone who presents obstacles (Babiak et al., 2010; Clarke, 2005; Hare, 1993). Thus, if an *ogre* is present in this type of archival research we would expect to observe ongoing concerns in relation to behaviour or actions of the *ogre*, for instance, if we return to the case study in the previous chapter where the teachers (Cathy and Sue) were arguing over the location for the school dinner. If this occurred because Sue was an *ogre*, the multiple concerns would be ongoing, even well after the dinner had been arranged and conducted. In the above scenario, there would be multiple complaints regarding training preferences.

It is important to note that the concerns identified in these archival files support the hypotheses, but do not indicate that there were definitely *ogres* present. There were multiple supporting 'incident type' examples within the case study school personnel files all of which can be tactics by an *ogre* (Babiak et al., 2010; Hare, 1993) (e.g., in terms of behaviours or actions such as failing to provide information to others, being rude to others or unprofessional comments, mild physical abuse, accusing others of unprofessional conduct, and failing to assist colleagues when requested), but they are not exclusive to *ogres*.

However, what cannot be disregarded is that Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) urge increased workplace bullying research in schools because they found unresolved power

struggles can progress into bullying (Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). Therefore, it is highly likely that some of the results here indicate bullying precursors to *ogre* behaviours. Furthermore, we know that bullying is under-reported (Kelly, 2006); therefore, the figures revealed in this research, 22.4% of all concerns being related to behaviour or actions, could also indicate that these recorded concerns are factors that also apply to *ogre* behaviours.

Moreover, SCT (Bandura, 1986) would consider these behaviours and actions in terms of symbolising capability. Language is constructed by symbols that are based on shared meaning. Humans base their communication on these symbols to represent thoughts, ideas and objects. Cognitive models are developed through the process of observing experiences and storing them as symbols, and these models later guide decisions, actions and behaviours. SCT would suggest that having authority is the symbol of power in the *ogre*'s cognitive model, and this has been stored as a satisfying experience from a time where the *ogre* may have held a perceived form of power. The behaviours are simply the non-verbal language that reveals the desire for power. Arguably, the intensity of this language may heighten when it is actually an *ogre* communicating. Hence, there appears to be little dispute in the results from this research that there may be a link between the desire for power and authority, and *ogre* behaviour.

Question 2. To what extent are negative interactions by *ogres* influenced by personality? In answering this question, a potential link can also be established between the concern of interactions between two or more people, outcomes of the concerns, and the literature on personality.

The Content Analysis of the archived personnel files would indicate that personality may be a factor in interactions, but again the data does not unequivocally validate this possibility. Interactions among two or more people were by far the highest recorded

concerns, accounting for more than half of the concerns (57.2%). When looking at outcomes for the total study, they were either resolved (40.8%), one of the people resigned from his or her job in the school (14.3%), or the concern continued (44.9%). With such a high rate of continuance across the study it may be indicative that where interactions are the subject, personality of individuals must certainly play a part. This appears to be the case where it can be shown that the intensity of *ogre* behaviour experienced by the victim is related to the *ogre*'s personality type, and that situational variables also contribute to the experience (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Seigne et al., 2007).

To illustrate, it was found that a majority of interactions that were recorded in the archived personnel files were situations where interactions were aimed at or included others, such as lying to colleagues, repeated bad language toward a student, discrimination or negatively judging a colleague based on their skills, judgemental attitudes toward gender or the role the victim held at the school, teaching styles that a parent or colleague did not agree with, and refusing to participate in team exercises. All of these behaviours have also been associated with *ogre* personalities (Clarke, 2005; Crawshaw, 2009; Mathieu et al., 2013). The data in this study also shows that many of the concerns were ongoing; therefore, it may be argued that the person whom the concern was raised about did not show any remorse, and therefore continued the behaviour, even after initially being spoken to by the Principal or a member of the school leadership team. As a result, the concerns were not resolved and may indicate a relationship between personality and negative interactions.

Furthermore, SCT (Bandura, 1986) would consider the *ogres* self-reflective capacity in these results. This capacity involves an individual's ability to make sure his or her thinking is correct by performing a self-check to verify his or her thoughts for accuracy. SCT would infer that an *ogre* may possess an impaired self-reflective capacity, and rely solely on thought verification of previously acquired rules of interpretation. If an action (e.g.,

discrimination) worked before, it will work again; this is analogous to a person buying a base model vehicle. They may like it so much they decide to buy the top of the range model of the same vehicle when they trade. In this situation, if an *ogre* has had success with discriminating against teaching colleagues, they may also discriminate against school leadership members. This will be compounded if the actions of this discrimination provide the outcome that the *ogre* expected. Hence, this research indicates that even though we cannot determine the exact extent, *ogre* behaviour is influenced by personality to at least some extent.

Question 3. How do individual perceptions of industrial law contribute to *ogre* behaviours? In answering this question, a link can be obtained by considering the perceptions of those at the case study school in regard to industrial matters, and the level of seriousness of those matters. The Content Analysis of the archived personnel files indicate that perceptions may contribute to *ogre* behaviour, particularly in terms of industrial/wage concerns, however this link is not substantial. For example, 20.4% of all concerns recorded in the personnel files were in relation to industrial or wage perceptions. When the level of seriousness in relation to these matters were mild (57.2%), the outcome seemed to be ongoing. Even though this figure indicates the level of seriousness from the total results of all the concerns studied, the majority of these were mild concerns in relation to industrial matters. Coupled with the ongoing outcome, through lack of remorse as outlined above in personality contributors, it is evident that individual perceptions may also contribute to *ogre* behaviours.

This is supported by Kelly (2006) who stated that perceptions are highly reliant on the researcher's definitions and criteria and perceptions of behaviour are individualised, so they differ amongst people (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). In industrial relations, we are often

provided with definitions and criteria, but they are rarely explicit. So much of this legislation is open to interpretation, and one may perceive such details differently to what someone else does. For example, a teacher at this case study school requested to take long service leave, but the Principal did not believe they were yet due to the long service leave entitlement. Therefore, allowing the leave to be taken would be a financial loss to the school. In this type of case, if the rules of employment are not clear in the legislation, a Principal often interprets and therefore perceives the law in favour of the school. Conversely, the teacher who wants to take leave will interpret and therefore perceive the law in favour of him or herself, to ensure they receive a satisfactory outcome for their individual needs. Sometimes the different perceptions or opinions of the teacher and Principal will be unresolved, and an industrial court will need to make the final decision; as was required in two cases from the case study school.

Furthermore, the assumption that SCT is relative to the way we interpret behaviour is evidenced here (Magoon, 1977). SCT (Bandura, 1988) would consider such interpretations in terms of self-regulatory motivation and modelling behaviours. Individuals often model the behaviours that they learn (e.g., a teacher may not model the same behaviour as a Principal when they consider the financial loss to a school before requesting leave). Therefore, a major factor in the decision to model or not, will be motivation (Bandura, 1988). Quite simply, the motivations of the teacher and Principal will be different. Furthermore, if a teacher who has *ogre* tendencies has observed another teacher receive positive outcomes from disruptive behaviour (e.g., granted leave after a verbal argument with the Principal) then the potential *ogre* will be more likely to model the disruptive behaviour. This would internalise that *ogre* behaviours are acceptable and more likely to result in positive outcomes. Consequently, this research has demonstrated that individual perceptions may contribute to *ogre* behaviour through interpretations.

Question 4. In what ways do Grievance Procedures contribute to the reinforcement of *ogre* behaviours? The Leximancer Analysis of the Grievance Procedure would indicate that Grievance Procedures do reinforce *ogre* behaviours in the following ways. Firstly, the themes and concepts are heavily weighted toward that of complaint and procedure. This would be expected, as the document analysed is one that provides a procedure to follow when there is a complaint. However, no themes/concepts were evident in identifying grievances at an early stage. This would be identified in themes and concepts such as *prevention* or *identification*. Therefore, the document focusses on a grievance already in progress, not one that is too mild to formally complain about, as is the case in more than half of the concerns reported in the archived personnel files (57.2%). This lack of action can reinforce *ogre* behaviour as many relevant concerns go unreported (Kelly, 2006), and Grievance Procedures only apply to those that are formally reported, and are strong on the level of seriousness scale in this research (6.1%).

Secondly, by analysing the concepts, one would believe that it may be possible to resolve complaints relating to staff with a procedure. However, by clicking on terms within the interactive map in the program, it is possible to explore where themes and concepts connect; and what is of interest in this analysis is that *resolution* does not connect to *outcome*. In fact, the concept of *resolution* was not highlighted in any of the analysis. Nowhere in the analysis is there an indication that an *outcome* is the result of an effective resolution, only an action. This indicates that procedurally at least, reported *ogre* behaviour is often actioned (e.g. disciplined) but an effective resolution (suppression of behaviour) is not always achieved. For example, a grievance between two staff members may cease (*outcome*), but they may not necessarily be able to continue working together effectively (*resolution*). Therefore, it may be argued that the grievance has had an outcome, but not a resolution. Further, one of the staff members may have felt it necessary to resign. This too can be

considered an outcome, but may not necessarily be a good outcome and may certainly not be a resolution. As a result, *ogre* behaviour can be reinforced through this process by not seeking effective outcomes.

Finally, and related to the above, actions and outcomes are identified concepts within the document, though they are not weighted very high, with connections to complaint only six and five percent respectively. Considering the Case Study School Grievance Procedure document (2009) is a Grievance Procedure, one would expect there to be a high focus on actions. If it were a policy document there would be an expectation of an increased focus on theory. This is indicative of the need for a distinct policy and a separate procedure relating to staff complaints and grievances within the school. Consequently, Leximancer has assisted the researcher to recognise that an argument exists for linking a resolution to an outcome, not only in practice but in documented procedure.

The results were not without surprises, namely the absence of the concept of *resolution*, and a low weighting to the concept of *action*. Further policy development may take this analysis into account when considering actions that can lead to the resolution and effective outcomes of grievances and conflict within the school.

Limitations and delimitations

As with all research, this study was not without limitations. In analysing the results it was apparent that there were some limitation and delimitation themes that are worthy of consideration for future research. The limitations that were out of control of the researcher were particular to the challenge of using retrospective archival data. Delimitations that were somewhat within the control of the researcher included choices of available research, incident observation, interpretation of outcomes, and choosing a research method.

Limitations. Firstly, the challenges of using personnel files. The research in this study is based on the available written documentation at the time the research was conducted. Due to the method of recording information, in some cases the researcher was not able to determine if the incident commenced some time, or in some other form before the documentation commenced, or if there was adequate resolution of incidents. There were also an unknown number of missing files. The archives in the case study school contain files from staff members who commenced employment in 1970. However, files for those who left the school during 1980 or 1981 were not able to be located. Although few, it is unknown if these files were lost in a natural disaster that allegedly occurred in the early 1980's, or if they were removed for some reason during a time in the school's history.

Secondly, consideration also needs to be given to what may not have been recorded. For example, the records were of varying lengths. What was not recorded in the smaller files is information about the person dealing with the incident, except that it was a person from the leadership team, mostly the Principal. The effect the incident had on others was also not able to be observed unless the incident was between two or more staff members. Clearly, the three teachers who resigned because of their recorded incidents would have experienced at least some distress, and a great deal of this was not documented. With current legal requirements on record keeping, this consideration may not be as significant in data analysis of more recent files.

Third, most of the incidents that were recorded were also resolved by the Principal. Consequently, it may be argued that the level of seriousness should always be 100% rather than 0% as the incidents were already at leadership level when recorded in the personnel file. However, this is unlikely as there has still been a failure to intervene with grievance processes, and another leadership member would have been available to also assist in a mediation process where required. It would be suggested that future research consider the

recorder of the information. In larger schools, Human Resource managers may be more likely to record relevant and impartial detail in accordance with legislative requirements.

Fourth,, what cannot be obtained from retrospective archival files is if the person recording the concern is an *ogre*. The incidents in this study were recorded by a range of Principals, depending on the time that they held a Principalship; however, there was not a file on any of these Principals to explore if they were complained about. Access to these files could reveal that one or more Principals presented with *ogre* behaviour. If more concerns are recorded by one Principal, it may be suggested that the recorder is an *ogre*, but the validity of that analysis would be questioned, as it is possible that one particular Principal may have been more meticulous at record keeping. It is more likely that incidents were generally recorded by the Principal, as they were most probably considered irrelevant until they came to the attention of the school leadership team. Again, this may not be a consideration for future research on more recent files where there are legal requirements for data recording.

Finally, the framework used in this study was not sufficient to examine the personal characteristics of those who manifest *ogre* behaviours. The data obtained was restricted to the characteristics of the concern, rather than the person or people contributing to the recorded concern. It would therefore be desirable to undertake future research with relevant modifications to the data collection and the proposed framework. This would allow a deeper consideration of questions 1, 2 and 3 in this research and a thorough exploration of possible personal characteristics, and their relationship with *ogre* behaviours.

Delimitations. One of the delimitations refers to the data that is already available. An overwhelming amount of the research data relates to the effects on victims of bullies, and the researcher needed to limit the available topics to ensure relevance. For example, prior to undertaking the study the majority of the literature consulted agree that minority groups

(females, ethnics) are more likely to experience *ogre-like* behaviour, and there is not any evident gender differences with victims. Most gender differences in bullying studies were close to 50/50 without significant differences with respondents (Fagan, Grimshaw, & Rubery, 2006; Gazso, 2004; Jones, 2006; Lewis, 2006; Lewis & Orford, 2005; Rubery, Grimshaw, Fagan, Figueiredo, & Smith, 2003). Therefore, reducing the number of topics and data collection to personality, perceptions and power/authority, the current was inquiry feasible. Future inquiries by this researcher may utilise the research of minorities and gender.

A second delimitation was that this study has looked at each incident in isolation. Ongoing multiple issues from one individual have not been captured or coded during the study, and this would provide further information in regard to possible *ogre* behaviours and the collected data on personality factors. Analysing multiple issues from single individuals could have specific relevance to the research and would be considered by this researcher in subsequent inquiries.

Interpretation is the third delimitation. Content Analysis can be a low-cost methodology, but it requires a significant amount of time, and strict criteria must be applied to analysis and coding. It is essential that the resources are available, and data distortion processes must be in place to ensure that the data is not compromised due to the researcher's interpretation. If interpretations and differentiation of meanings are misconstrued, the information obtained can mean little and the results of the research can be slanted or skewed (Jenner & Titscher, 2000). This meant that data collected for this research was restricted by time available to the researcher.

Consequently, the researcher needed to ensure that all possible concerns were captured and that all concerns were accounted for where recording appeared to end prematurely. As a result, the outcome '*resolved*' does not always mean all parties are happy or that transparency and fairness was present. It simply means that documents in the

personnel files indicate that the incident ceased to be an issue. Any interpretation here would also only be relevant to the case study school, and would not be able to be generalised. As such, it may not be a general reflection of all schools, nor a reflection of the success of the use of a Grievance Procedure. This highlights that although Content Analysis is a prevalent methodology used in case study research, when undertaking case study research with Content Analysis it is nearly impossible to replicate a mixed-methods bundle and this should be considered before commencing the research (Jick, 1979; Kohlbacher, 2006).

The final delimitation is the choice of methodology. As with all research, thought needs to be given to strengths and limitations of the methodology chosen. Content Analysis is generally a method that can be used to learn more about policies, target audiences, politics or financial support without great expense. In addition, it can increase its power when used in conjunction with other types of research methods (Kohlbacher, 2006). However, use of Content Analysis is limited to the material that is available and it may distinguish underlying motives that may be present in the material that is being studied (Weber, 1990).

Content Analysis can provide useful information, though it can be prone to user error and interpretation if not used with awareness of its limitations. Historically, computer software has also often lacked the ability to undertake complex tasks beyond the basic programming, and sometimes data can be lost in translation (Kohlbacher, 2006). Therefore, determining the quality of the Content Analysis methodology, its strengths, and limitations; and availability of alternative software for analysis, require clarification before research results are presented.

For example, Kohlbacher (2006) indicated the need for an error theory specific to Content Analysis. This would establish a systematic compilation of quality criteria that could assess the types and kinds of errors that can transpire while Content Analysis is being conducted. Nevertheless, all social research claims to meet a number of quality criteria, and

to date Content Analysis has also been measured on the traditional research criteria of reliability and validity, and has consequently been declared as a valid, reliable and objective methodology (Kohlbacher, 2006).

Fortunately, Content Analysis is of great use if the communication context is the research focus; particularly if operational categories can be formulated before the research commences and if the vocabulary is the only emphasis (Jenner & Titscher, 2000). However, its use can be limited if the research question is very broad and restricts the use of categories. Hence, Kohlbacher (2006) proposed that Content Analysis can be highly useful for theory-guided analysis of text but not useful for research that is explorative and interpretive. This is indicative of Content Analysis whereby extracting the relevant text portions occurs first followed by analysis of them. Therefore, it cannot be used effectively if text itself is the subject of examination.

Recommendations

The value of what does not work is as significant as what does in this study. For future research, it be proposed that *ogre* evidence could be located with the assistance of key faculty members, such as the Principal, Human Resources, and long term senior staff members. Furthermore, considering alternative or additional methods of analysis (such as Nvivo) on all documents, and compare results against another school for example. These would enable a more focussed framing of the research questions.

There are 2 key recommendations from this research. 1. Development of a global definition of *ogre* behaviour, and 2. Use of solution focussed risk management mechanism.

Global non-clinical definition of *ogres*. As mentioned in chapter 1, *ogre* behaviour is difficult to define. Therefore, research participants must have a similar definition to enable

an accurate measurement of the socio-psychological and interactional phenomenon we experience as *ogre* behaviour. This would enable direct and simple comparisons between studies (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis et al., 2008). This consideration must be made for any future attempts to develop a global classification of *ogre* behaviour for the purposes of research, as without a comprehensive definition, there will be little likelihood of developing transparent policies (Randle et al., 2007).

Solution focussed *ogre* risk management. If we are to deter *ogre*'s we need a risk management tool that will cover the 2, 3, 2, 3 combination of categories as highlighted in Table 6.1. This research has revealed that this combination is the most common type of concern within the school, though Leximancer Analysis, it is discovered that the Grievance Procedures appears to only cover the 3, 1, 2, 1 combination. By developing a risk management tool, the school may be better protected if the *ogre* is successful during the interview process. Furthermore, such a tool would support the effective outcomes that are not addressed in Grievance Procedures, and it is highly likely that some form of this tool is already in use in most schools and workplaces, but has not been specifically tested for its use with potential *ogres*, as the first step seems to always be the Grievance Procedure.

Table 6.1

Analysis Framework

INCIDENT							
Type		Duration		Level of seriousness		Outcome	
1	Industrial/Wage concern	1	Short	1	Weak	1	Resolved
2	Behaviour/Action of individual	2	Medium	2	Mild	2	Resigned
3	Interaction among 2+ people	3	Ongoing	3	Strong	3	Continued

A matrix based on the type of concerns in Table 6.1 could be developed to offer a visual way to follow the procedure. This matrix could lead to a different policy, depending on the situation. These policies would be mandated by legislation, similar to the bullying provisions in the WHS Act (2012). For example, the above table could be developed into a risk matrix, as shown in Table 6.2, with the assistance of a risk rating table, similar to the example in Table 6.3, only with procedures to follow as its content. An example of how the three tables can be used to identify and potentially resolve *ogre* behaviours follows after Table 6.3.

Table 6.2

Behavioural Matrix

Behavioural Matrix		Consequence of behaviour				
		Severe	Major	Moderate	Minor	Minimum
Likelihood of behaviour re-occurring	Frequently	1	1	2	3	3
	Likely	1	1	2	3	3
	Possible	1	2	2	3	4
	Unlikely	1	2	3	4	4
	Rare	2	3	3	4	4

Table 6.3

Risk Rating

Guideline for resolution			
Rating	Solution	Example	Action
1	Dismissal	Extreme cases requiring immediate action such as gross misconduct, violence, theft, fraud	Refer to Dismissal Policy/Procedures

2	Performance Management	Persistent patterns of moderate behaviours such as covert bullying or undermining toward others.	Refer to Behaviour Management tools
3	3 rd Party intervention	One-off minor behaviours such as swearing at another person. Must include more than 1 person	Refer to - Grievance Policy/Procedure
4	Training & development	Occasional mild behaviours – misunderstandings or personality clashes between 2 or more people	Refer to training and development tools

For example, using table 6.1, we may identify an ongoing negative behaviour or action between two individuals. E.g., both are continually gossiping about one another in an attempt to discredit each other. Firstly, we would consider the likelihood of it re-occurring. In Table 6.2 this it could be reasonably considered that the likelihood of that behaviour re-occurring would be frequent.

Secondly, we would then consider the level of seriousness as defined in table 6.1. This may translate to a moderate consequence in table 6.2, resulting in a 2 on the behavioural matrix. Once this number is determined, we would refer to table 6.3 for an action.

But where are the *ogres*? It is under rating 2 where we could expect to see *ogres*, but they are frequently dealt with via the tools in rating 3. Leximancer identified that the Grievance Procedure does not link a *resolution* to an *outcome*. A performance tool will do this and should be researched for its current effectiveness in schools and other workplaces. Risk rating systems are time honoured successful methods to monitor all types of risks in the workplace, and most workplaces have a staff performance policy in addition to a Grievance Procedure. We have these tools at our disposal, and they are familiar to the majority of leadership team members. Therefore, adding a risk matrix to the performance management procedures already in place may assist in decreasing the risks associated with *ogres*. Ultimately an *ogre* may be a significant risk to the workplace because of the damage they can

cause, therefore the inclusion of *ogre behaviours* in our risk assessments and tools would be useful.

With any risk, there is no guarantee that the risk can be totally eliminated. There will always be a chance that something will go wrong. For example, we may be able to develop all of the tools, but leaders who use them also need to be willing to apply the steps. At times this may not be possible. Therefore, support of victims also needs to be outlined in policy to ensure that they are protected in environments where weak or indistinct leadership skills may prevail (Strandmark & Hallberg, 2007; Strandmark & Rahm, 2014). However, by drawing on systems we already have in place, utilising them in areas that were not previously considered, we can decrease risk; so when an *ogre* does successfully slip through the recruitment system, we at least have a tool to guide Principals, and those responsible for human resources in schools.

Conclusion

Even though this research does not unanimously indicate that we are definitely able to identify *ogres* within retrospective archival research, it does outline the importance of considering each concern on its merit and type, rather than expecting that the same reaction to concerns will solve all of them. For example, in victim studies, some authors use self-reporting tools that may cause variances (Salin, 2001). SCT would argue that these self-reports may vary depending on the mood of the person completing them (Bandura, 1991) because we have the ability to rate our own behaviour differently according to our mood. Therefore, it stands to reason we would rate the behaviour of others also according to our mood. The current study does not suffer this shortfall as written documentation is objective and free from victim perceptions, and demonstrates that every concern recorded is

complicated, is varied due to perceptions and needs, and therefore requires different steps from the outset to reach a suitable and effective resolution.

As a result, this study has assisted the researcher think about alternative mechanisms to assist Principals and school leaders to promptly decrease the impact of *ogres* within the workplace. The research results have also stimulated the desire for another study to further develop and refine the concepts uncovered in this thesis. The outcomes of this study may not explain the behaviour of *ogres*, nor was that the intention, but they have assisted the researcher to better understand the types of concerns raised so we are able to develop tools for assisting schools to decrease *ogre* behaviour.

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